# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1887.

## The Week.

THE decision of the Secretary of the Treasury to accept no offering of 4½ per cent. bonds at higher rates than 110, including the accrued interest (which on the first of September will be 1⅛ per cent.), has probably caused some disappointment in the circles of speculation, but we think that he would not be justified in going above that figure at present. Each outstanding bond of this class may now be considered in the light of a call loan from the holder to the Government. Call loans on Government security can be had at about 3 per cent. A 3 per cent. bond subject to call would, therefore, be worth about par, and if running, in four years, perhaps, 2 or 3 per cent. above par. A 4½ per cent. bond would be worth as much more as its interest would yield in the four years, *i. e.*, 6 per cent. Putting the time premium and the excess of interest premium together, we get 108 to 109 as the present value of the 4½ per cents to the holders. Of course the Secretary could afford to pay a much higher rate, since the total sum he has to pay if the bonds run to maturity is 118. But he must be able to show to Congress and the people that he has not paid more than was necessary. He must give no color to the charge that he has favored speculators or has allowed them to "corner" him. He is perfectly justified in taking as a starting point the net worth of the bond, which is, at a close calculation, 109 ex-interest, or 110 including interest to date. He has advertised his intention to pay out his surplus whenever the money market has sufficient need of it to pay 3 per cent. interest for it. The offerings made show that the 4½ per cent. bonds are to a considerable extent in the hands of men in active business, as distinguished from trustees and mere investors. The latter class are growing less numerous from day to day. As the date of maturity of the bonds draws near they will sell the 4½s and buy the 4s. The 4½s will fall more and more into the hands of bankers and brokers, and thus be brought within the reach of the Secretary at fair prices. For the present there is nothing like tightness in the money market, and therefore no reason for complaining that the Secretary has not come to the relief of business.

The Civil-Service Commissioners have summarized the results of their investigation into the charges affecting the management of the Philadelphia Post-office in a long "opinion," the points of which may be briefly summarized. They found that the complaints by the local Civil-Service Reform Association, that Postmaster Harrity had violated the rules in making appointments to fill vacancies, were not sustained by the evidence, and state that "in no way, so far as the evidence develops the facts, did he violate either the Civil-Service Act or the rules." That the overwhelming majority of the new appointees entering under the rules were Democrats appears to be true, but the reason seems to be the same as that which caused the overwhelming majority of those who entered under the same system while a Republican was Postmaster to be Republicans, viz., the impression that members of the party opposed to the Postmaster for the time being would not stand much chance of appointment, and so had better not waste their time in passing examinations. The charges that appointments were distributed evenly among the election districts of the city proved to be untrue, as also the charge that men who could not spell or write correctly had been appointed, and the charge that political assessments have been made in the office. As for the charge that numerous removals have been made for political reasons, the Commissioners say that even if it were true, which they do not admit, they could take no action, as the law does not make removals for such reasons an offence. Messrs. Oberly and Lyman think that a rule requiring reasons for dismissal, to be filed with the order for dismissal, would be wise, but Mr. Edgerton dissents from this view.

A signal of distress is hoisted by the Republican party of Massachusetts in the pathetic appeal, signed by Senators Dawes and Hoar and a long list of other magnates, and addressed to the Prohibitionists, imploring them not to be so foolish as to vote for the third party, when the Republican party, with its "splendid national history," etc., is ready to promise them anything—before the election. There is reason for the Republican alarm. The spirit manifested in the town of Conway, where a pledge to support the Prohibition party has been signed by about half of the Republican voters, is shared by many other members of "the grand old party"; and at a largely attended meeting in Northampton a few days ago, the speakers announced their desire and purpose to beat the Republican party as the surest way of ultimately reaching their end. Any fresh promises which the Republican managers may now make will count for little, in view of the fact that the party last year pledged itself to submit a prohibition amendment, and then failed to keep the pledge when the question came to a vote in the Legislature.

Fuller returns from the Texas election confirm the impression that the vote of the native white Democrats, certainly outside the cities and large towns, was pretty evenly divided, and that the great majority against Prohibition is chiefly due to the negro and German Republicans. Twenty-five counties gave majorities for the amendment, and in each of twenty others the adverse majority fell below 100. These 45 counties in which the Prohibition sentiment was so strong contained only 27,557 negroes to 191,980 whites in 1880, and cast 38,849 votes for Cleveland to 8,388 for Blaine in 1884. On the other hand, the six "black counties" of Fort Bend, Harrison, Marion, Matagorda, Walker, and Waller, which contain 47,334 negroes to 23,471 whites, and cast 7,135 votes for Blaine to 3,970 for Cleveland, rolled up 6,849 majority against Prohibition.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal* last week published the official returns from 110 of the 119 counties of Kentucky. The remaining nine will add about 10,000 votes to the total, divided nearly equally between the Democrats and the Republicans. The full returns, therefore, will vary but little from these figures: Buckner, Democrat, 145,412; Bradley, Republican, 125,567; Fox, Prohibitionist, 8,256; Cardin, Labor, 4,841; Buckner's plurality, 19,845; total, 284,076. This is by far the largest vote ever polled in a State election, and, indeed, exceeds the highest total ever reached in a Presidential year, the aggregates having been 259,608 in 1876, 267,131 in 1880, and 275,913 in 1884. The results in 1884 and 1887 compare thus:

| | Dem. | Rep. | Pro. | Labor. | Total. | Dem. Plural. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1884.... | 152,961 | 118,122 | 3,139 | 1,691 | 275,913 | 34,839 |
| 1887.... | 145,412 | 125,567 | 8,256 | 4,841 | 284,076 | 19,845 |

This shows that the Republicans have gained about 7,500 votes and the Democrats lost about the same number, while the Prohibitionists and Labor parties together have gained something over 7,500, or practically all of the total increase of the vote in the State.

We have pointed out that the fatal obstacle to an effective Republican campaign in the South next year is the fact that the Republican party still remains a sectional party, and abuses as "rebels" all Southerners who vote against it. There is one other serious obstacle in the way of making the Republican party respectable and strong throughout the South, and that is the fact that in the single Southern State which has been carried by the Republicans during the past ten years they have been represented by Mahone, one of the most disreputable politicians ever seen in public life. Mahone and his subservient followers have just held a meeting at Richmond as the Republican State Committee of Virginia, and the Republican campaign this year is to be made openly and avowedly for the purpose of sending this wretched demagogue back to the United States Senate. It would be an insult to the white men in the North to ask them to support the Republican party if its chief local representative was Mahone; it is equally an insult to white men in the South under existing circumstances.

The general Republican talk about candidates in this State is extremely edifying. The managers are all in favor of offering the head of the ticket to Gen. William H. Seward, but are in doubt as to his willingness to accept. They are also in favor of Col. Fred Grant, Senator Comstock, and others equally removed from merely partisan politics for various positions on the ticket. It is noticeable that there is no longer any talk about Theodore Roosevelt and the ambitious young gentlemen who gathered themselves about him a few months ago for the avowed purpose of taking possession of the Republican party in the State. Not one of

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them is even mentioned for a place on the ticket. Still, we have no doubt that they can have all the places they want. The Platt-Hiscock combination is perfectly willing to have that ticket composed of "good men" throughout, since there is very little prospect of its election. The work of the combination will be concentrated upon the nomination and election of a Platt majority in the State Senate. We doubt if there is a Republican politician in the State who expects to see the party's State ticket elected in November. The "hopeful" tone which they all adopt is similar to that of this reply of Senator Knapp of the St. Lawrence district when he was asked by a *Tribune* reporter if the Republicans could carry the State: "The answer to that lies in bringing out the vote. If the feeling on the Presidential question is strong enough to get the voters out, the Labor diversion will offset the Prohibition vote, and we shall win. The prospect looks fair for success."

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The apparently authoritative announcement, made by that good Blaine organ, the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*, that the Republican nomination for Congressman in place of Senator Hiscock has been settled on James J. Belden of Syracuse, is extremely interesting. It shows as plainly as Platt's leadership does the rapid down-hill pace at which the Republican party is travelling in this State. Belden was one of the leading men in the old Canal Ring which Gov. Tilden broke up. He was for years a professional lobbyist, and was one of the most skilful of his species at Albany. Jacob Sharp, among others, found his services valuable. Sharp testified before the Senate Investigating Committee that he paid Belden $65,000, and when asked for what reason he paid him so large an amount, replied: "Well, Mr. Belden is a man who don't stir round for nothing. He expects to make something." That is the most accurate description ever given of Belden. He was a devoted Blaine man in the last campaign, and has always taken a deep interest in everything in which he was able to see "various channels" of usefulness.

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The sober second-thought of Georgia and of the South is making itself felt against the Glenn bill, which threatens with the chain-gang any person who teaches white and black children together. The Atlanta *Constitution* publishes a letter from Mr. Sidney Root, who shows much familiarity with the work done by Northern benevolence in the education of the negroes, and who says: "Unquestionably mistakes have been made, but, on the whole, I believe substantial good has resulted." Mr. Root says of the pending bill: "It will probably be found that penal legislation is unnecessary. Undoubtedly the State has the right to say how its appropriation shall be expended, and it seems to me that a simple declaration of the principles involved, and a resolution forbidding the payment of the public money to support schools where the two races are educated together, will be all that is necessary." Dr. Atticus G. Haywood, the well-known Southern Methodist and manager of the Slater fund, protests against the bill as unwise because it is unnecessary. He thanks God that he knows the white teachers whose children attend the negro college, and he honors them fully as much as he does his own sister, who is now engaged in missionary work in China. He says that there are only fourteen white children in colored schools in the State, and he thinks that Georgia has no reason to be scared. He closes with this very pertinent observation: "There is a law in Georgia against intermarriage—a law more violated, ten to one, if not in the letter, in the reality and spirit of it, than the law against mixed schools. If now the Legislature will give us a law placing the parents of mulatto children in the chain-gang, it would be worth while." The Jacksonville *Times-Union*, the leading Democratic paper of Florida, protests against the measure; and the Memphis *Avalanche*, which speaks with authority for Democracy in Tennessee, says that "the censure which the Georgia Legislature is everywhere receiving for the serious consideration which it has given to the bill making it a felony to teach a white pupil in a negro school, is well deserved."

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The public have become very much hardened on the subject of railroad accidents, but now and then one occurs of such appalling magnitude that everybody stops for a few moments to reflect upon the mysteries of life and death, and to wonder whether he or she will die in bed surrounded by the consolations of religion and human love, or underneath a pile of iron and timber, and in the torture of devouring flames. The accident on the Toledo, Peoria and Western Railroad is certainly one of the most horrible that ever happened since railroads were invented. It is so horrible that no words can describe it. We can only shudderingly ask who is to blame, if anybody, for such an awful destruction of human life and such desperate wounding and maiming of men, women, and children. The testimony taken in the Coroner's inquest does not sustain the theory that the bridge was set on fire by robbers. There was nothing to support that theory in the beginning. If the train had been on time, it would have passed over the bridge in safety, but, being an hour late, the timbers had been so much burned that they could not support the weight of the locomotives. If the fire had been started by robbers, they would have made their arrangements to suit the case of a train running on schedule time, instead of one an hour late. Moreover, it appears that the only thieves on hand were on the wrecked train, having come along with the excursionists for what they could pick up. The origin of the fire is still to be learned. But the responsibility for having a pestilent wooden bridge at that place, and having it insufficiently watched at a time when the prairies were burning or liable to burn at any time in consequence of the protracted drought, can hardly be doubtful. The Toledo, Peoria and Western Railroad was a shoddy concern in the beginning, put together by hook and by crook in the great mania for cheap roads in the period immediately after the war. We suspect that little has been done to improve it since. It went bankrupt in 1873, was reorganized and taken into the Wabash system, went bankrupt again with Wabash, was taken out of the Wabash medley and set going on its own account. Probably this accident will bankrupt it the third time, but that will be the least of the calamities that are involved in the slaughter at Piper City.

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The government of Washington is again the subject of much discussion. Ever since the experiment of popular suffrage at the national capital broke down, the District of Columbia has been under the control of a board of three commissioners, two of whom are taken from civil life, and the third from the regular army. When President Cleveland reorganized the Board a year and a half ago, he was most fortunate in being able to secure as the representative of the army Col. William Ludlow, a graduate of West Point, an accomplished civil engineer, and an official of proved executive capacity through three years' service as Chief Engineer of the Water Department of Philadelphia, reëlection to which position was refused him because he had run the Department on business principles and refused to make it a part of the Republican Machine. Col. Ludlow naturally became the leading spirit of the Commission, and he has discharged his duties with the same fidelity which caused the Philadelphia *Press* to say of him, when he was leaving that city, that he was "the most efficient and competent officer the Department has ever had," and that he was "thrown overboard because he *is* a good officer, and because his office is administered strictly on business principles." Such a man is pretty sure to institute changes and establish reforms which are disagreeable to some people, and thus to incur criticism; but a candid examination of the charges brought against him and the Board of which he is the most active member, shows that they are the result of ignorance and misunderstanding, where less creditable motives may not be suspected.

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Referring to the recent rejection by the Second Comptroller of the Treasury of an account for the purchase of horses for the Secretary of War, submitted by Col. Batchelder, as late Depot Quartermaster at Washington, the *Evening Star* of that city reminds its readers that there is an almost continuous conflict of authority between the accounting officers of the Treasury and the War Department; that Mr. Maynard, as Second Comptroller, was at variance with the Secretary of War in refusing to recognize as sound the theory that an account for expenditures ordered by the Secretary could not be questioned, and that the conflict continues under the new Second Comptroller, Mr. Butler, on the same ground. It is not a correct inference from this that there exists a hostility between the War Department and the Treasury, or that the correspondence caused by the holding up of these accounts differs from that which has been maintained for many years between the Comptrollers and the heads of the various departments. There is simply friction in our system. Under all administrations it is observable, and it is to be regretted that it should be now pointed out as an indication of want of harmony between Mr. Butler and Mr. Endicott.

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A case in point occurred thirty-five years ago. Lieut. Jones of the navy, while on leave of absence in Paris, was severely wounded by accident during the revolutionary outbreak in that city. The Secretary of the Navy sent him $1,000 to pay the expenses attending his injuries. The accounting officers charged this sum against his salary. This presented as clear and as strong a case as can be conceived to test in the courts the legal power of the accounting officers to question the acts of heads of departments. The Supreme Court of the United States (U. S. vs. Jones, 18 How. 92) decided that the propriety of applying this money to the payment of the Lieutenant's expenses growing out of the accident was peculiarly within the jurisdiction and direction of the head of the department, and that the officer could not be charged with the amount so transmitted. Then followed these words, which should be engraved upon the desk of every Auditor and Comptroller of the Treasury: "The Secretary of the Navy represents the President and exercises his power on the subjects confided to his Department. He is responsible to the people and the law for any abuse of the powers intrusted to him. His acts and decisions on subjects submitted to his jurisdiction and control by the Constitution and laws do not require the approval of any officer of another department to make them valid and conclusive. The accounting officers of the Treasury have not the burden of responsibility cast upon them of revising the judgments, correcting the supposed mistakes, or annulling the orders of the heads of departments." This decision would bring about, if respected, a state of affairs such as the English people have at last established. In England, if a payment exceeds the amount prescribed in the particular instance, or if it is for an object outside the appropriation, the accounting officer of the Department is held responsible for making the needful representation to his superior officers. If this representation is overruled, the accounting officer presents it in writing, and then countersigns the order if still required to do so. The theory there is that his function is to assent or dissent, not to administer or to overrule administration. But the Jones case has received no more respect from Treasury officials than John Marshall's Cherokee decision received from Andrew Jackson.

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Up to 1881 the Grand Army did not interfere with pension bills, but merely accepted the gifts which a grateful country made its members; and the steps it then took were the legitimate ones of furnishing information to assist in the more rapid and equitable adjustment of claims. In 1882 the national encampment took its first action intended to have effect on pension legislation, and during the following March the Committee on Pensions were able to persuade Congress to pass an amendment which they favored to what was known as the $40 pension bill. The new departure and its success apparently made an impression on the soldier vote, for the organization increased in the following year by 80,745 members, an extraordinary rate, never equalled before or since. In 1883 the then Surgeon-General of the order advanced the idea that pensions were not gifts from a grateful country, but debts accrued by contracts or obligations. He argued that, unless the soldiers had won the battles of the republic, its bonds would have been worthless, and that, therefore, the Government was under no more obligation to pay the bondholders than to make good all detriment received by the soldiers in the war. This view was readily and enthusiastically accepted by many members of extreme views, and was even improved upon by calling all such pension bills as the soldiers might ask for demands of right, that should take precedence over bondholders' claims. The extremists were equally delighted with the Surgeon-General's idea that "the millions which flowed from the Treasury into the soldiers' hands lubricated the wheels of commerce."

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Happily for the organization, such impudent claims have hitherto been steadily outvoted by a more moderate majority whenever the question of official action has arisen in the national encampment. Thus, in 1883, a resolution favoring a law to give all honorably discharged soldiers and sailors $8 a month, provided they had not received a pension before—in other words, giving all such honorably discharged veterans a present of that amount—was voted down. Yet so dissatisfied were the hot-headed minority that more than 1,000 posts petitioned Congress not only to pass this bill, but to make it apply to all veterans, whether they had received a pension before or not—that is, to pass a service-pension bill. In 1884 the latter proposition was again voted down, as well as the resolution that every veteran should be presented with a warrant for 160 acres of land, whether he occupied the land or not, and that the difference between the value of the greenbacks they received for their services in war and gold should be made good to them. In 1885 the $8 pension bill for all veterans was once more voted down, and in 1886 the national encampment showed the same good sense by a vote of 327 to 86.

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The dry season in Mexican politics is not passing without giving some indications of the way events are likely to shape themselves in the future. The reëlection programme is being carried out smoothly, the Legislature of Sonora having approved the proposed amendment to the Constitution on June 18, and Sinaloa going through the form on the 27th of the same month. President Diaz as yet gives no sign of what his determination will be, but there can be little doubt that he will acquiesce in what his friends tell him is the demand of the country. Meanwhile, the clerical reaction which has been going on steadily for the past half-dozen years appears to have received a serious check. The Juarez anniversary, on July 18, served to call out a remarkably widespread expression of popular distrust of the Church party—an expression so strong that the Administration was forced to side with it. The President and his Cabinet were conspicuous at the commemorative services held in the capital, Secretary Mariscal delivering one of the orations. Federal troops in large numbers were ordered to join the parade, the Government organ had frequent editorials recognizing and approving the popular feeling; a rampant Catholic editor was arrested and sent to jail. Nothing, in short, was left undone to commit the Administration to the Liberal revival. Probably no other name than that of Juarez could have had power to unite, if but temporarily, the factions of the Liberal party in such a way as to draw from even the intransigent *Monitor* expressions of satisfaction. The glum tone of the Church press adds to the significance of the situation.

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The circumstances under which Prince Ferdinand of Coburg-Gotha mounts the throne of Bulgaria are apparently as unfavorable as they possibly could be. The conditions stipulated by the Treaty of Berlin for the validity of a choice include the unanimous recognition by the Powers, and this cannot be obtained, owing to the hostility of Russia, whose Government has gone too far in its assertions of the incompetency of the late Sobranye to elect a ruler, to recede now from its position. France has steadfastly sided with Russia since the downfall of Prince Alexander; and out of complacency to these two Powers, the Sultan, whom they so recently supported in his assertion of sovereign rights in Egypt, will undoubtedly withhold, for a time at least, the express sanction of the Tirnova election which it is his right to bestow as suzerain in advance of foreign recognition. Austria-Hungary, Germany, Italy, and England may all secretly favor the choice, but none of them has reasons for driving Russia to an open rupture by an infraction of the solemn treaty terms on which the order of things in the Balkan Peninsula rests. Ferdinand will thus long remain the unrecognized ruler of a nation whose very status as such is still open to dispute. Besides, if he is not to forfeit the enthusiasm which has greeted him on his accession, and which he tries to nourish by displays of ardent zeal for the young nation's independence and greatness, he must assume also the government of Eastern Rumelia—the southern Bulgaria—to which he, however, has no legal or international title whatever; for his predecessor was acknowledged by the Porte as ruler of that autonomous province, after the *coup d'état* of September, 1885, not in the capacity of Prince of Bulgaria, but as Imperial Governor, deriving his powers from a special personal appointment. Ferdinand's entering Philippopolis as Prince will thus be a new usurpation. Add to all this the certainty of continued intrigues by tools or partisans of Russia, of Zankoff and his fellow-conspirators, of King Milan of Servia, and Prince Nikita of Montenegro, and surely the prospect is disheartening enough. But Prince Ferdinand reckons on the strength of accomplished facts; on the rivalry of the Powers, which will not allow intervention by one or two against him; on the weakness and apathy of the Porte; on his dynastic connections as a scion of the houses of Coburg and Orleans; on the sympathies of the central European nations, and especially of Austria-Hungary, springing from anti-Russian impulses; on the favorable disposition of Rumania, and chiefly on the patriotism of the Bulgarians and his own resources as a courageous adventurer.

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## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, August 10, to TUESDAY, August 16, 1887 inclusive.]

### DOMESTIC.

SECRETARY FAIRCHILD on August 10 accepted the offer of the Suffolk Savings Bank of Boston to sell $260,000 registered 4½ per cent. bonds at 110 flat. All the other proposals which had been made were rejected, as the rates were not considered favorable.

The Secretary of the Navy on August 15 awarded the contracts for United States cruisers as follows: Cruiser No. 1; the *Newark*, to Cramp & Sons, for $1,245,000, according to the Department's plans for the hull and the contractors' plans for machinery; cruiser No. 4 to Cramp & Sons, according to the contractors' plans, for $1,350,000; cruiser No. 5 to the Union Iron Works of San Francisco, the Department's plans for hull and machinery, for $1,428,000; and gunboats Nos. 3 and 4 to N. F. Palmer, jr., & Co. of New York (Roach's assignees), at $490,000 each.

The Secretary of the Interior on August 15 revoked the order of withdrawal of indemnity lands for the benefit of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad Company, and, in a letter to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, directed that they be restored to settlement under the Preëmption and Homestead Laws. It is estimated that between 25,000,000 and 30,000,000 acres are involved in this decision in the case of the Atlantic and Pacific Company alone. The order applies also to a number of other railroads.

The Commissioner of Indian Affairs has interpreted the Indian Severalty Act as a "law sufficient to constitute any Indian 'born within the territorial limits of the United States, who has voluntarily taken up within said limits his residence, separate and apart from any tribe of Indians therein, and has adopted the habits of civilized life,' a citizen of the United States, 'entitled to all the rights, privileges, and immunities of such citizens,' without action on his part." "Should any such Indian be denied or refused any of such rights, privileges, or immunities," the Commissioner explains, "he should appeal to the proper courts, in the same manner as it would be necessary for other citizens to do in case of similar refusal or denial." This interpretation opens the way for all the educated Indians who are scattered over the country to be counted as citizens, without forfeiting any of the property rights which they have as members of tribes.

A sheriff with a small posse of men recently went to the White River Indian Agency in Colorado, to arrest two Indians who had been indicted for horse-stealing. Chief Colorow of the White Utes refused to surrender them, and his warriors fired at the sheriff's men. In the fight one Indian was killed. There has been fear of murder and plunder by the Indians since that time.

It is reported that in a fight with the Indians on August 9 four Utes were killed. The situation is regarded as threatening, and the Governor of Colorado has ordered State troops to the region where the Indians are, and has asked aid of Gen. Crook.

Before the Pacific Railway Commission, in session at San Francisco, Charles F. Crocker, Vice-President of the Southern Pacific Company, and Senator Stanford both refused to say whether or not the Central Pacific had paid any money for influencing State or national legislation.

In the United States Circuit Court at San Francisco on August 15, Judge Sawyer issued an order citing Senator Leland Stanford to appear and show cause why he should not be compelled to answer questions asked him by the Pacific Railroad Commission in regard to the expenditure of funds for the purpose of influencing legislation.

Having been beaten in the United States Circuit Court for the Eastern District of Virginia in his long contest for the continued custody of "Blind Tom," the feeble-minded negro pianist, Gen. James N. Bethune, through his attorneys, made a motion in the Supreme Court Chambers in this city August 11 to vacate the order made in March appointing Mrs. Elise Bethune, widow of Tom's late manager, custodian of Tom's person and property. The motion was denied.

The official returns of the recent Kentucky election give Buckner (Dem.) 17,015 plurality over Bradley (Rep.).

The New York State Convention of the Union Labor party at Rochester August 11 nominated candidates for a part of the State offices, and adopted a resolution favoring a protective tariff. This is the smaller faction of the Labor party, the larger being the United Labor party, of which Mr. Henry George is a leader.

Prominent members of the National Colored Press Association at Louisville, Ky., on August 10, expressed the opinion that the negroes should be independent in politics of the slavish following of any party. The resolutions adopted denounce the acts of the Legislatures of Indiana, Virginia, Tennessee, and other States making intermarriages a penal offence, while crimes committed against colored women by white men are overlooked, and call the Glenn bill in the Georgia Legislature unjust. The attempt to organize a national organization of colored people to work politically was not favored, but local organizations adapted to the peculiar circumstances of places and people were. The Association recommended the establishment of a National Bureau of Information to ascertain the extent and nature of lawlessness and mob violence against colored men.

Rain fell August 10 in a large part of the area in the Northwestern States where vegetation had been destroyed by drought, but it came too late to revive the crops. There have been many destructive fires in this region. Much timber and many fences have been destroyed, and a few dwellings.

On the night of August 10 a train of sixteen cars, filled with excursionists bound for Niagara Falls, was wrecked on the Toledo, Peoria and Warsaw Railroad by running into a burnt wooden bridge near Chatsworth, Ill. More than eighty persons were killed, and at least a hundred more were badly hurt. The bridge was a short one and was burnt from the bottom. There was no blaze visible to the engineer, and the track did not yield until the first engine passed over it. It is probable that it caught on fire from burning grass or from a spark from a locomotive that passed late in the afternoon. The supposition that it was set on fire by persons who wished to rob the passengers, is not supported by the testimony of the railroad officials and of persons who live near the scene of the wreck.

A west-bound express thirty miles east of Tucson, Ariz., August 10, was ditched and the express car robbed by four men of $3,500.

The Giant Powder Works at West Berkeley, six miles from San Francisco, blew up August 11. Buildings were shaken and windows broken in San Francisco, and one man was fatally, and ten others were seriously hurt.

The handsome Masonic Temple, the Hamilton Block, Campbell & Dick's carpet warehouse, and a number of adjacent tenement-houses in Pittsburgh, all valued at $500,000, were burned on the night of August 12. It is thought that the fire started from a match thrown in a waste-paper basket by a man who was smoking.

United States Senator Riddleberger was sentenced, at Woodstock, Va., August 12, to pay a fine of $25, and to imprisonment for five days, for contempt of court. He was released from jail the same night by a mob, but on the next day voluntarily returned to the cell.

At Rockaway Beach August 9, T. S. Baldwin, a San Francisco aeronaut, jumped from a balloon at a great height, and came down with the aid of a parachute. He alighted near the shore in a few feet of water. The time of the descent was a trifle over one minute and twenty-four seconds.

In the series of races by the yachts of the New York Yacht Club off the Rhode Island and Massachusetts coast, the *Volunteer* has in every one been the winner.

The Scotch yacht *Thistle*, the new challenger for the *America's* cup, arrived at this harbor on the morning of August 16. She left Gourock Bay, Scotland, on July 25, at ten o'clock in the morning, and made the passage to Sandy Hook in twenty-one days twenty-one hours.

The Rev. Dr. Curran, a Catholic priest, recently filled an appointment at a picnic of the "Anti-Poverty" Society with Dr. McGlynn, and thereby exposed himself to the censure of his ecclesiastical superior. He expressed to Archbishop Corrigan his sorrow that his presence in company with Dr. McGlynn had been interpreted as favoring contumacy and disrespect to the Holy See, and he has promised to abstain in future from anything that might give rise to such interpretation.

The corner-stone of a monument commemorative of the Revolutionary battle at Bennington, Vt., was laid August 16, with Masonic ceremonies, in the presence of a distinguished company of persons from Vermont and the adjacent States.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science held its thirty-sixth annual session in this city August 10-16. A large number of papers was read, among which were one by Prof. Atwater on economy in the use of food, one by Prof. James of the University of Pennsylvania on the condition of the laboring classes, wherein he opposed the view of Mr. Edward Atkinson that laborers are better paid than formerly, one by Thomas A. Edison about his efforts to produce electricity directly from coal, and one by Mr. Yan Phou Lee on the anti-Chinese law from a Chinese point of view. Among the resolutions adopted was one directing the appointment of a committee to devise methods for obtaining from Congress a reduction of the tariff on scientific books and apparatus. The Association will meet next year at Cleveland, O., the fourth Wednesday in August.

Funds have been provided for the establishment of four or five fellowships at Princeton College for the year 1887-88, the amount of each fellowship being $400 or $500. Applications for these may be made by graduates (A. B. or B. S.) of Princeton College of not more than five years' standing. The Fellows must reside in Princeton during the entire academic year, and engage exclusively in the studies of the departments selected.

Mr. George W. Vanderbilt has made arrangements to build and equip, at a cost of about $70,000, a branch library for the New York Free Circulating Library. Plans for the structure have already been prepared. This new branch, like the Ottendorfer branch, and that now building by Miss Catharine Bruce, will be under the charge of the main library.

John M. Clay, aged sixty-five, died at his stock farm, near Lexington, Ky., August 9. He was the only living son of the late Henry Clay, and was a well-known turfman. Gen. Charles Hughes died at Sandy Hill, N. Y., August 10. He was a member of Congress in 1853 and 1854, and was Clerk of the Court of Appeals in 1859, 1860, and 1861. During the war he served as Provost-Marshal of Washington District. Mr. Davis Collamore, one of the oldest merchants in this city, died August 13. Ex-Senator Aaron A. Sargent died at San Francisco August 14. In 1861 he was elected a member of Congress from California. He subsequently served in the Forty-first and Forty-second Congresses, and in 1873 entered the United States

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Senate. On March 2, 1882, he was appointed Minister to Germany by President Arthur.

FOREIGN.

At Tirnova on August 14 Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha took the oath of office as Prince of Bulgaria and signed the Constitution. The Prime Minister on his behalf read a proclamation, saying: "We, Ferdinand I., by the grace of God and the will of the people Prince of Bulgaria, announce to our well-beloved people that we assume the Government of the country. We will rule in accordance with the Constitution, with intent to promote its glory, greatness, and development. We shall always be ready to sacrifice our life for its happiness." The proclamation concluded with, "Long live free and independent Bulgaria!" and there was no reference to Russia in it. Neither Turkey nor any of the Powers has replied to his note asking their approval of his election. The London *Standard's* Vienna correspondent says: "England, Austria, and Italy have sent Turkey an identical note declaring that they consider the election of Prince Ferdinand legal. The Bulgarian situation now depends entirely upon Russia, who, through the Russian Chargé-d'Affaires at Constantinople, has handed to the Porte a formal protest against Ferdinand's proceedings, which protest Russia expects Turkey will endorse."

It is reported that Austria, England, and Italy have informed the Porte that their agents will remain in Bulgaria and continue relations with the Government. Russia insists that the appointment of Artin Effendi as Turkish Commissioner to Bulgaria be cancelled. The *North German Gazette* says the manifesto of Prince Ferdinand appears to be intended as a declaration of Bulgarian independence, and aggravates the breach of the treaty of Berlin, of which he has been guilty, and that Germany cannot approve of Prince Ferdinand's course.

On August 11 the House of Commons' amendments to the Irish Land Bill were adopted by the House of Lords. The Duke of Argyll warned the House that the bill in its present form was an immense development of the Gladstone Land Act of 1881, and one that in the future would lead to some defection.

At the Lord Mayor of London's annual banquet to the Ministers August 10, Premier Salisbury made an evasive speech, in which he said that the Government had done everything to give effect to the country's mandate to preserve the unity of the empire. Extra powers had been placed at the Government's command, and the country had a right to complain if those powers were not used discreetly but firmly. This was construed to mean that the Government will proclaim the Irish National League. Regarding Egypt, the Premier said that England must see real security in that country; that before the British troops are withdrawn Egypt must be free from internal sedition and safe from external attack.

The British Cabinet had a long session first on August 9, then on August 12, and again on August 13, to decide whether to proclaim the Irish National League. The majority were reported to be against proclaiming it, but no decision has been announced.

The most important of all the bye-elections of members of Parliament was the election on August 13 in the Northwich division of Cheshire, to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. R. Verdin, Liberal-Unionist. It resulted in a victory for Mr. J. T. Brunner, Gladstonian, who received 5,112 votes, against 3,983 for Lord Henry Grosvenor, Liberal-Unionist. In the last election the Liberal-Unionist candidate was successful by a majority of 458. Lord Henry Grosvenor, the defeated Liberal-Unionist candidate, is a son of the Duke of Westminster.

Mr. Brunner, in an address to the electors of his district, said: "You have won a victory for Mr. Gladstone and for Ireland. The issue between the classes and the masses has been made absolutely clear for the first time. The significance of this message of peace to Ireland it is impossible to overrate."

Mr. Maude, the Secretary of the Liberal Union, has resigned because he disapproves the attitude of the leaders towards the Gladstonians and refuses to support the Tory programme.

Sir J. Fergusson, Parliamentary Secretary of the Foreign Office, stated in the House of Commons August 9 that England had never acquiesced in the presence of French troops in the New Hebrides, and that the English Government were unwilling to believe that the French occupation would long continue; and he declared that the Government would in no wise consent to a postponement of the withdrawal of the French until an agreement respecting the neutralization of the Suez Canal had been reached.

Several Parisian newspapers have announced that the English and French Governments have agreed upon the basis of a plan for the neutralization of the Suez Canal; that a convention embodying these principles has been framed, and that its signature by the two Governments may be expected.

In the second set of British naval manœuvres on August 12, the torpedo-boats failed to do what was expected of them. Expert opinion is that not one of them would have fired its charge or escaped capture or destruction.

The five-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Henry V. was celebrated at Monmouth, August 9. The bells of St. Mary's Church, which Henry V. brought from France, were rung in honor of the day.

On August 11, in Northumberland, the twelfth centenary of St. Cuthbert was celebrated by a pilgrimage to Holy Island, near Berwick, where the ruins of the abbey stand which Cuthbert inhabited as Bishop. The place is approachable at low tide only by wading three miles on the sands. Ten thousand pilgrims, men, women, and children, made the journey, all barefoot, and singing ancient hymns as they marched. An altar was fitted up in the open air on the ruins of the abbey. The priests, more than a hundred in number, and a thousand kneeling worshippers, made an impressive spectacle. Among the waders were all the old Catholic gentry of Northumberland of both sexes, and side by side with them were Irish dock laborers from Newcastle.

A service in commemoration of the centenary of the American Episcopate was held at Westminster Abbey August 12. The Bishop of Iowa preached the sermon, and the Archbishop of Canterbury wrote special prayers for the occasion.

A manifesto written in behalf of Prince Victor by Clément de Royer was read at Bonapartist banquets in France on Sunday. In it M. de Royer says: "Prince Victor intends in future to be sole chief of all the Imperialist committees in France. By the Prince's order I am to continue to communicate with the committees of Paris and the different departments. Under his personal direction we shall achieve the concentration that is necessary to success. This policy is destined to restore the Empire."

Gen. Boulanger sent a telegram of condolence to Mme. Katkoff on the death of her husband. He added that his military duties prevented him from attending the funeral. Prince Krapotkine has written an indignant letter to M. Rochefort, protesting against the enthusiasm of republican France for M. Katkoff. Rochefort refused to publish the letter, though he says that as a Socialist he agrees with its contents; but in his comment on it he asks: "Who shall say that we shall not be compelled to talk German in our old age? Anybody who will save us from that shame will be worthy of gratitude."

M. Jenot, a French professor at the Lyceum at Nancy, was arrested August 16 near a German fort on suspicion of being a spy, and lodged in prison to await an inquiry. He protested against his arrest, saying that he had simply wandered to the fort from a village where he was spending his holiday.

A severe wind-storm on August 15 destroyed much property at Bordeaux, and caused the collision at Arcachon of two excursion trains. Several cars were wrecked and seventeen persons were hurt.

Among the notable persons who have died within a week are Jules Etienne Pasdeloup, the eminent French musician, at Paris, August 14; at Constantinople on the 15th, Behram Agha, the Sultan's chief confidential adviser, who virtually directed the state affairs of Turkey; on the same day Meier Goldschmidt, the Danish poet, novelist, and journalist.

A St. Petersburg firm has equipped and started for central Asia an expedition which will establish cotton plantations, and make an analysis of the soils of Turkestan and the Transcaspian Territories.

It is reported from Simla that 70,000 persons died from cholera in the Northwest Provinces of Asia during June and July.

Fishing vessels returned from Icelandic waters report great destitution among the natives of Iceland.

The report of the Hudson's Bay exploration expeditions, sent out last year by the Dominion Government, calls attention to the monopoly of the Americans in whaling in Hudson's Bay, and recommends that since Canada's rights in Hudson's Bay are unquestioned, a proper method for Canadians to secure a part of this business be pursued.

The American schooner *J. H. G. Perkins* has been released by the Customs Collector at Charlottetown, P. E. I., and it cleared August 12 for North Bay. The Dominion Law Agent caused a writ to be served on the captain, McDonald, for $2,000. Capt. McDonald has put in a defence and will contest the case on its merits. He will take action against the Dominion Government for damages.

Two Canadian steamers, the *Hastings* and the *Kathleen*, were seized by the Custom-house officers at Charlotte, N. Y., August 14, on the ground that neither of the boats had been inspected by the United States Inspectors. The forfeiture is $500, and the boats were allowed to proceed upon giving bonds to the amount of $1,000.

At a public meeting at Winnipeg August 15, which was reported to be "thoroughly representative of the commercial interests of the Canadian Northwest," speeches were made favoring closer commercial relations with the United States, and the meeting was unanimously in favor of this view. Among the speakers was Prof. Goldwin Smith of Toronto.

Bishop Perry of Iowa was unanimously elected Bishop of Nova Scotia by the Anglican Synod at Halifax August 10.

Because of the prediction of Zuniga, a pretended earthquake prophet, who declared that there would be a severe shock in the City of Mexico August 10, the churches were thronged with nervous worshippers. Zuniga disappeared, fearing rough treatment. But many superstitious people bought his pamphlets and read them with avidity.

Advices from Honolulu of date of August 2 are that the new Constitutional party had already held a number of caucuses, and placed in nomination candidates for Nobles and Representatives. Of the nominees nearly all are men of property and old residents of the island, but the most of them are of American birth or parentage. The King's Chamberlain had issued a public notice that after August 1 no debts on account of King Kalakaua and the royal household would be recognized unless authorized in writing by the Chamberlain. F. H. Hazeltine, son-in law of ex-President Gibson, had been arrested on a charge of forgery,

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## THE TREASURY POLICY.

THE *Journal of Commerce* criticises the action of the Secretary of the Treasury for "going out of his way," as it says, "to relieve the money market by anticipating payments of interest not yet due from the Treasury, and offering to purchase a portion of the unmatured debt." This policy it calls "assisting the speculators." "There was a pressure for money," it continues, "and it is said that a panic in stocks, and possibly in some articles of produce, might have ensued if the Secretary had not come to the relief of the market. This was no doubt the substance of the plea made to him and the reason he would assign for his action." Then the *Journal* makes some very proper reflections on the duties of public officers, and especially the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to keep his hands off the money market and leave speculators of all kinds to their own devices and their deserved fate.

If the Secretary were asked to assign any reason for his action, it would, we think, be very different from that imagined by the *Journal of Commerce*. In the first place, there was no pressure for money at the time when he issued his circular. The pressure had come and gone some time earlier. It had been felt when the wheat speculators and the Fidelity Bank of Cincinnati succumbed. It had culminated on the 24th of June, when the Manhattan Railway speculation failed. The liquidation in stocks and produce which followed those disastrous adventures had been concluded, and the money market had resumed its normal tone of comparative ease, before the Secretary took any action whatever. The circular announcing the Treasury programme was issued on the 5th of August, on which day the quotations for money on call were 4 to 5 per cent. If any "plea" had been made to the Secretary of the kind imagined by the *Journal of Commerce*, it would have been manifestly false. It is not probable that he would assign as a reason for his action a state of facts which did not exist.

But, of course, he must have had some reason, and we look in vain through the long article in the *Journal of Commerce* for some hint or suggestion of it. It is pretty well known to commercial bodies and commercial newspapers that the Treasury Department for many years, under all administrations, has been using its surplus—the excess of current receipts over current disbursements—to redeem the public debt. The bond calls have been as regular as the seasons, varying only as the ordinary income and outgo varied. For all purposes of meddling with the money market, assisting speculators, etc., etc., a call of matured bonds is identical with a purchase of unmatured bonds. Both serve to keep the Treasury surplus down to the requirements of Treasury business. Both serve to keep the Treasury out of the money market rather than in it. So long as the Secretary keeps his balance down to his needs, he is not a factor in the money market. When he accumulates money beyond his needs, he becomes such a factor, and a pernicious one. If it be asked what his needs are, the answer is that a trained body of officials are kept in Government employ to compile the appropriations of Congress, the requisitions of the departments, and the receipts of revenue, in order to know what the needs are at any time, and what they will probably be one month, three months, or six months hence. For the purposes of public discussion we may assume that the average balance of "good times"—the average amount which other Secretaries have kept on hand in fairly prosperous times—would be the proper amount, and that any considerable excess of accumulation in the Treasury would be an act of meddling with the money market, altogether inexcusable if the law afforded any means of escape from it. We remark in passing that the balance kept on hand in the first year of Secretary Manning's administration was necessarily larger than is now required, because the public receipts, owing to the depression of trade, were on the decline, and it was impossible to tell what the shrinkage might be. The tide has turned, public receipts are on the rise, the working balance of the Treasury ought to be smaller, and is so.

We have said that the disbursement of surplus funds to cancel a matured debt operates upon the money market and upon speculation and all the things that the *Journal of Commerce* treats of, exactly as a like disbursement to purchase an unmatured debt. The act in each case is an act of restoration to private business of what belongs to private business. The Government is one branch of the aggregate business operations of the country. It has an army, a navy, a post-office, courts, lighthouses, public lands, and a variety of other things to administer, to provide for, and to pay for. It also has a debt, the interest upon which is one of its current expenses. It was never contemplated in law, or in political economy, and still less in the public conceptions, that the branch of business which has charge of the common defence, the carrying of letters, the administration of justice, etc., should draw a hoard of unused capital to itself to be sat upon in time of peace and in a period of augmenting revenues. No administration could justify itself in the forum of reason in pursuing such a policy.

Of course every officer of the law must find his warrant in the law for what he does. The Secretary of the Treasury has cited the laws which authorize him to purchase portions of the public debt when there is no part of it subject to call and redemption at par. One of these laws is mandatory in terms, requiring the Secretary to set apart a certain portion of his receipts from customs duties for the "purchase or payment" of one per centum of the public debt each year, counting as debt all bonds in the sinking fund. It may be said that the reason for this law no longer exists. But the law exists, nevertheless, and the word "purchase" is as plainly written in it as the word "payment." No Secretary having the means in his hands to comply with it would dare to overlook or come short of it, unless the bond market had been so cornered against him as to require an extortionate price for his purchases. In such a case he might reasonably postpone action until he could lay the facts before Congress and ask for advice. No such case now exists. The Secretary not merely is within his authority, but, failing to exercise it, would be exposed to attack upon legal as well as economical considerations.

"It is not wise to interfere with the operation of natural laws," says the *Journal of Commerce*. Precisely so. This is the maxim that the Secretary of the Treasury appears to be acting upon. If there were no other laws than natural ones, there would be neither Treasury nor surplus. All the money in existence would be in circulation or available for circulation. The establishment of a Treasury with the necessary means is the least infringement upon natural law compatible with the social state. The accumulation of means not necessary is a glaring interference with natural laws, and one which everybody is interested in putting a stop to. In counteracting it as far as possible, the Secretary is in accord with public interests and, we are convinced, with the overwhelming weight of public opinion. Whatever he may do, somebody will find fault with him. If he does nothing at all, still more will he be blamed. We presume that he made his reckoning with all possible fault-finders when he accepted the office which he holds.

## THE IVES SWINDLE.

THE affairs of the firm of Henry S. Ives & Co. have not yet been fully exposed, but sufficient is known to warrant some general reflections upon the state of business which enables an impecunious rascal to get possession of a first-class railroad and within a few months clear out its treasury, overissue its stock to the extent of $10,000,000 or more, and incur liabilities to the amount of $19,000,000. These figures have all the air of Oriental romance. The Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Railroad is one of the oldest railroad corporations in the United States. It dates from the year 1845. Its capital stock was small, its bonded debt smaller still, and its obligations in the nature of leases and guarantees very moderate for the mileage operated and the earnings received. It happened that a controlling interest in the stock of the company had been collected together some years ago in a trust; for the purpose of turning its freight business over to one of the New York trunk lines. This trust was in course of time declared to be illegal and void by the courts of Ohio. The stock thus "bunched" in one holding was accordingly sold, and in some way Ives & Co. got hold of it, paying about $140 per share, borrowing for this purpose all the money except a broker's margin. How they obtained the margin is not yet entirely clear, but as soon as they got possession of the road they found money and available assets in the treasury sufficient to make good their margins on the original purchase-money and to do many other extraordinary things, which have been from time to time reported in the newspapers. Their aim from the beginning was to exploit the credit of an old-established property well known to investors, in such manner as to work off some millions of bogus securities on the public and retire with the proceeds.

In order to accomplish this it became necessary to borrow large sums of money to tide over the interval which must elapse before the new securities could be created and brought

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out in legal form. Here we find the occasion for the first reflection on the prevailing methods of business. Ives was a man little known in the Street, and what was known of him was altogether bad. He had been engaged in an attempt to swindle a number of members of the Stock Exchange by both selling and buying a stock which was really non-existent, although the formality of striking it from the list of securities dealt in on the Exchange had not been complied with. This characterless person found little difficulty, however, in borrowing enormous sums of money on collateral security. It is much easier for lenders to examine collaterals than to inquire into the character of borrowers. The habit of looking to the security and ignoring the person has become ingrained with most of the large lenders of money. Under no other conditions could Ives have carried on his operations at all. That he was an adventurer everybody knew. That he was a rogue anybody might have known by a very little inquiry. Yet his collaterals were good, or seemed to be, and so he got the money which he required to pave the way for the greater operations that he had in view.

Now, we affirm that such a fellow ought not to be able to borrow large sums of money on any kind of collateral whatever, not even on Government bonds. The rule should be posted up in every banking-house and trust company in Wall Street and in every other Street, "Never have any dealings with persons unknown." The rule never to have any dealings with a scoundrel is supposed to be in force in every responsible house, but we fear is not always obeyed if money happens to be easy and the collaterals are undoubted. The other rule should be as rigidly observed. No well managed bank would accept a deposit account from a stranger, although the acceptance of such account puts the bank to no risk except that of forgery, a risk which it runs more or less every day in the ordinary course of business. Still less should loans of money be made to one who, if not an entire stranger, is one grade worse, in that any attempt to find him out would show him to be a knave.

We are glad to see it stated that District Attorney Martine considers it his duty to institute an official inquiry into the performances of Henry S. Ives & Co. We believe that he will find more than sufficient cause for the criminal prosecution of the adventurers composing that firm. The officers of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Company can put him at once in possession of the facts and figures relating to the spiriting away, without the slightest extenuating circumstance, of over two millions of cash and nearly five millions of preferred stock from the treasury of that corporation. Nor is this all. Conclusive evidence may be found that Ives has also helped himself from the Treasury of the Terre Haute and Indianapolis Railroad Company to something like one million and a half in cash and securities, and taken from the Mineral Range Railroad Company about $450,000 in cash. As in the case of the Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton, he acquired control of those two companies by the purchase of a majority of the stock for the evident purpose of getting possession of the funds in their respective treasuries. In both of the latter cases, his stealing from the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton furnished the means for the purchases. The Mineral Range Railroad is a small concern, and its control did not cost him much over $200,000, which he at once got back, and $250,000 more, by emptying its treasury into the hands of his firm.

The method pursued in the plunder of the Terre Haute and Indianapolis Company was unique. Ives took the stock of the Dayton and Michigan Railroad Company in the treasury of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Company, sold it for a million to Thomas J. Emery of Cincinnati, and with the proceeds bought the majority interest in Terre Haute and Indianapolis stock from W. R. McKeen of Terre Haute, the President of the company, for about $1,500,000, paying about two-thirds in cash, the balance payable in six months. This purchase was nominally made for account of the Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton Company. Thereupon, McKeen surrendered the Presidency to him. Ives immediately had his firm constituted fiscal agents, and transferred the $1,400,000 cash on hand to New York for its account. Besides this large amount of cash, the company had on hand several thousand shares of its own stock and some hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of first-class bonds. Ives took both stocks and bonds, pledging them for the loans of his firm. He made some payments subsequently out of the cash for the company, but the books of his firm show an indebtedness of about $1,500,000 to the Terre Haute and Indianapolis Company. In short, the District Attorney ought to have no difficulty in securing berths for a long term of years for Ives and his aiders and abettors in the State prison, if the courts of this State have jurisdiction of the offence.

## *TECHNICAL EDUCATION.*

THE June number of *Consular Reports of the United States* embraces a synopsis of the special report of M. Amédée Marteau to the French Government on the industrial progress of Germany during the past ten years. The attention of the French authorities was directed to this subject of investigation by the annoying discovery that German goods have been finding a market in France in increasing quantities from the year 1878 onward, so that whereas French exports to Germany had in the year 1875 exceeded imports from that country by 77,000,000 francs, the balance had turned the other way to the extent of 137,000,000 francs in the year 1881, and each year was showing a remarkable excess of imports. That the former supremacy of French technique had been challenged by Germany was proved by the great increase of the latter's exports of manufactures to other countries than France, the total of such exports having more than doubled in ten years. But when this flood came pouring into France and underselling French houses, and displaying superiority in many of the finer products of industry in which French art had been hitherto unrivalled, it became absolutely necessary to discover what it all meant. Hence M. Marteau's investigation.

Without going into all the details of the report, which is a fine tribute to the perseverance and unflagging attention to details which characterize the German nation, M. Marteau finds the principal cause of their growing industrial supremacy in the technical schools, which are increasing in number and efficiency from day to day, and of which there are now more than 250 in operation in the country. In these schools young men are taught everything known to human science and art relating to the practical means of earning a livelihood. Mining, metallurgy, textile industries, pottery, porcelain, and glass, and all the intricacies of machines here open their mysteries to the youth of Germany, who not only are raised to the highest possible standard as producers, but, according to M. Marteau, are imbued with a noble ambition to make their knowledge effective. They gain self-confidence and the spirit of enterprise which prompts them to penetrate all parts of the earth to find markets for the sale of their goods. They exile themselves from home. They carry their acquired knowledge to distant countries. They learn foreign languages and study foreign habits. This consummate training is now beginning to bear its fruits. Germany is gaining on her competitors in the world's markets; she is even gaining on them in their own markets; and she will distance them if they do not keep pace with her in technical education—not the haphazard education of the workshop, but the systematized training of the best minds and the most skilful hands, the true masters of their several callings in all the departments of practical industry.

Neither France, nor England, nor the United States is destitute of technical schools. What we draw from M. Marteau's report, therefore, is that Germany's schools are both more numerous and better than those of his own country, probably than those of any other country. England has been making great exertions in this way in recent years, the most notable result being the Guilds of London Institute, founded with the funds of the ancient city companies. She has been pushed forward in the direction of technical training by the rising commercial importance of Germany. What France has found out only recently, England began to feel ten years since, and she then began to bestir herself. She has studied profoundly and systematically the methods of German instruction in the industrial arts, and is now following those methods with such improvements as she deems best suited to her own people. She is making notable progress, too, but she is still behind her Continental rival in many of the branches in which she was wont to excel. The Higher Weaving School of the city of Chemnitz, for example, is without an equal in the world, and to its influence is attributed the gradual supplanting of the industries of Nottingham by those of its Saxon rival. A graduate of this school, the son of an eminent citizen of Boston, was able, within one year after his return home, to command a salary—we will not mention the amount, but it was such as very few lawyers or doctors, and still fewer editors, ever attain. What this young man had acquired that made his services so valuable was, in chief, the abili-

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ty to take in pieces and put together again any weaving machine for any class of goods of any kind, description, or make in the known world. And this various training can be found, all in one place, only in Germany.

The relative status of the nations of the earth always has been and always will be fixed by their mental and moral acquirements. If Germany has more knowledge than other countries, she will eventually have more trade, more money, and more power. It needs but a slight superiority in any industry to give to the people possessing it the command of all neutral markets. The means of international communication are now so rapid and searching that slight advantages tell in a wonderful way. And when these advantages are joined to an enterprising spirit, when the same intelligence that guides the producer inspires the merchant also, the highest results are attained in the commercial world.

Technical schools, it need scarcely be said, are as various as any other schools, ranging from the primary department, which takes the place of the old and now generally abandoned apprenticeship system, to the Polytechnic or Industrial University, and the special institutions for special trades, like the Higher Weaving School of Chemnitz. How many of all grades taken together have we in the United States? We call attention to M. Marteau's investigation and conclusions for the purpose of moving, if may be, the spirit of emulation among Americans in the pursuit of those practical arts in which we are accustomed to think that we excel by nature. Undoubtedly we are an inventive people, but *superiority* in the art of getting a living comes no more by nature than reading and writing come by nature. It cannot be affirmed that we have given too much of our means and our efforts to what is called liberal education, for Germany excels us there also, and with good profit to herself, in the stand she is enabled to take in literature and science. She is the world's leader in technical education because she was the leader in liberal education beforehand. But it is palpably true that we have given too small a share of our means and our thought to industrial training, and that we must take up this subject in serious earnest, and on a large scale, if we would not fall behind our compeers in civilization.

## AGOSTINO DEPRETIS.

ITALY, July 30.

IN Agostino Depretis the dynasty of Savoy has lost one of its oldest, most devoted, ever constant champions, United Italy one of its earliest and most pertinacious pioneers. A republican never, a unitarian ever, the difficulties of keeping the revolutionary horses harnessed to the monarchical car, to prevent them from taking the bit between their teeth, and to keep the royal charioteer on his seat, were better understood and more courageously confronted, from his youth upwards to his latest hour, by the man just dead, than by any other statesman who has been at the helm during the last thirty years. These difficulties, confronting a man of settled convictions, but of most vacillating nature, accustomed to consult all points of the compass, to examine all means conducive to an end, all roads leading to a goal, and, while quite clean-handed in pecuniary transactions, not at all scrupulous as to political instruments, laughing at consistency, proclaiming opportuneness as his guide and law, have rendered him one of the best abused men in Italy during the last quarter of the century. While preparing the biography of Dr. Agostino Bertani for the press, I have come across a number of letters from "Agostino" to "Agostino" which will cast no small light on the career of the Minister, and at the same time show how true a friendship between the two patriots endured to the end, although Bertani never hesitated in public and in private to admonish and criticise or challenge to single combat the chief of the majority. Member of the Opposition, captained by Rattazzi in the old subalpine Parliament, Cavour feared Depretis politically, and personally disliked him, opposed his election as Deputy, and protested against his nomination as Governor of Brescia when Lombardy was freed from the Austrians in 1859. Yet it was owing to a motion of Depretis's that the organization of the volunteer corps was rendered compatible with the red-tape system of the Piedmontese army, and Depretis was one of the warmest supporters of Cavour's loan for fifty millions to prepare for the war against Austria:

"If I thought," he said, "that the war was impossible or improbable, I should not support this bill; neither would I vote for the loan if we were only called upon to defend the territory of this state against Austria in the strict sense of the word. But, gentlemen, our Government not only holds aloft the tricolor flag, is not only the head of material forces, it is the moral government of all the Italian populations, it is the moral head of Italy, the guardian of Italian interests and destinies, the centre of Italian hopes. Piedmont has a mission which Italy has recognized and consecrated: united Europe cannot prevent her from accomplishing it; hence, deeming that the Government has done well to propose a loan for the national armament, I vote with the Ministry."

This was in March, 1859. When, in 1860, Cavour and Massimo d'Azeglio had sequestrated or deviated from their original destination the muskets purchased by national subscription for arming the volunteers to be led by Garibaldi to the liberation of Sicily and Naples, Depretis hit upon an ingenious device for outwitting Cavour. The Prime Minister had ordered the National Guard of Brescia to be armed with 3,000 muskets destined for Garibaldi. Depretis, the Governor, writes to the General the following unpublished letter:

"April 27, 1860.—Dear and illustrious friend: It is my duty to notify you that the Provincial Council of Brescia has to-day decided to purchase the 3,000 muskets sent by the Committee of the 'million muskets' resident in Milan. Thirty francs for each musket will be paid within three months to you or to any person furnished with your signature. Moreover, 8,000 francs here collected and actually in the Provincial Treasury will be paid to you at once.—With profound esteem, your most devoted, A. DEPRETIS."

And 98,000 francs were paid out of the Provincial Treasury of Brescia for arming the Sicilian volunteers. Cavour, then Minister, found means to secure the resignation of this Governor of the only province which, as a province, had officially supported the then forlorn hope—an offence aggravated by the money having been handed over to Garibaldi's representative, Agostino Bertani, just as the Duce had steamed out of Quarto with his Thousand for Marsala.

When the Bourbons had been defeated and driven out of Palermo, Garibaldi wrote to Bertani his intention to nominate an able administrator during his absence from Palermo. Bertani suggested Depretis. Cavour preferred Valerio, and writes to Count Persano:

"Depretis was a Mazzinian before and after 1848. Not long since he was in correspondence with Mazzini, and always avoids denying 'The Prophet' solemnly and in public. Moreover, apparently austere, and despite a certain manner which would seem to indicate resolution of character, Depretis is undecided and irresolute, and knows ill how to face unpopularity. He has talent, but is wanting in such political studies as serve to assist a statesman in judging of the opportuneness of acts of an international character. He would be an excellent executor under a decided chief, but will be a very poor director in any great political movement."

Partly right and partly wrong was this verdict. Depretis never sought or attained to popularity, and Cavour's repeated injunctions to Persano and his other agents in Sicily not to place confidence in him were most unjust; for when he considered that Cavour was right in insisting on the immediate annexation of Sicily, he risked the utmost unpopularity that could befall a man in those days, opposing Garibaldi's resolve not to annex the island until the Bourbons should be expelled from the Neapolitan kingdom and he with his volunteers in full march on Rome. Before me lie his original letters to the Dictator, then at the gates of Naples, after his victorious march from Reggio—passionate in their patriotism, pathetic in their entreaty. "Dearest and most illustrious friend," commences that of the 1st of September, "God bless your daring enterprise, and keep you safe on sea and shore." Then he expounds the reasons, which seem to him unanswerable, for immediate annexation to Piedmont. But to Garibaldi and to his "To Rome and Venice" partisans, annexation would cut away the basis of operations, and his answer is characteristic: "Dear Depretis: As for annexation, it seems to me that Bonaparte may wait a few more days yet; meanwhile, do you get rid of half-a-dozen intriguers, and begin with the two . . . [noted annexationist agents of Cavour]."

The fiercest opponent of annexation was Crispi, Home Minister under Depretis in Palermo. His letters reached Garibaldi by the same steamer, containing stringent arguments against annexation, supported by the assertion that the Sicilians only cared for the expulsion of the Bourbons and for the liberation of the whole of Italy; that the annexationist cry was fictitious, raised only to stop the Dictator's liberating career; and that he himself felt it his duty to resign. Letter upon letter followed from both. Garibaldi summoned his pro-dictator and Minister to Naples, which he had just entered as victor; listened to their respective arguments and special pleading; decided in favor of Crispi, and accepted the resignation of Depretis, paying a flying visit to Palermo to install the new pro-dictator, Mordini. Crispi was decidedly in the right from the revolutionary point of view, for the instant Garibaldi consented to the annexation of Naples and Sicily he was compelled to retire to Caprera, his volunteers disbanded, and the liberation of Rome and Venice was postponed to an indefinite future.

As long as Cavour lived, little more was heard of Depretis, but after the death of the great Prime Minister he became the stanch ally of Rattazzi, was Minister, and remained so during the tragedy of Aspromonte. He was, nevertheless, a steady supporter of Liberal measures, and waged war against the Moderates perseveringly for the next fourteen years, then appeared as "the minister of progress," and in 1878 the famous programme of Stradella brought him nearer to popularity than he ever came before or afterwards. In the House elected on his platform, his majority was tremendous. From it the pillars of the Moderate church had been excluded—Bonghi, Visconti Venosta, Spaventa, and Saint-Bon only succeeded in entering at the double elections. Massari, Broglio, Ruspoli, and the smaller fry did not get in at all. And here Cavour's judgment proved true. Depretis had not the elements for a leader of men; he seemed frightened at his own power, dismayed by the clamor for the actuation of his own liberal programme. Then an element—whether of strength or weakness we will not decide, but a lessening

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of responsibility, blest or cursed by his predecessors—failed him from the outset. King Victor was a constitutional monarch up to a certain point, but when he and his Ministers came to issue, they either had to cave in or to resign, and on one occasion in 1864 he abruptly dismissed them. Not so King Humbert, who from the moment he ascended the throne resolved himself into a model representative King, never passing the boundary limit or even exercising undue influence on his Ministers. Depretis seems to have felt himself, consequently, doubly responsible for the safety of the dynasty; but his very anxiety led him into numerous blunders, every one of which was ruthlessly expounded and held up to public scorn and disapproval by Crispi. All the principal reforms promised at Stradella were effected, but they brought no credit to Depretis—"We forced them from him," cried the scattered components of his majority; but his blunders or intentional sins have all been piled up against him. The African expedition lies at his door; so the railway convention, disastrous in a pecuniary sense, his hostility to France and an almost servile condescension to Germany and Austria, his vacillating policy towards the Vatican, are evils that will live after him. But in our opinion his tampering with elections—out-Cavouring Cavour in pressure put upon prefects, syndics, and every civil servant to secure his candidates — has corrupted what moral sense was left in the country. And such a demoralized police force as he put together and supported has rarely disgraced a civilized country. But these are evils that can be remedied by his successors, and the good he did will not be interred with his bones—the reforms he effected will be associated with his name. It is too early yet to forecast the immediate future. Crispi so far is master of the situation, and were Cairoli (yesterday at death's door and to-day only slightly better) in his usual health, he would probably be Prime Minister without a portfolio. In ordinary circumstances the new Ministry, however composed, would propose to the King a dissolution of the House and an appeal to the country, but since Crispi's accession and the King's splendid telegram to the Archbishop of Venice, who dared to suggest that he should refuse his signature to the decree for the abolition of tithes, the clerical party have put forth their full strength at the late municipal elections in Naples, as previously at Rome they had signally triumphed. Should they ally themselves with the Moderates, and come to the polls at a general election, it is difficult to foresee which party would come off victorious. That there are fierce battles yet to be fought every one acknowledges, and probably the party in power will prefer to defer the combat until their forces are organized.

One merit will ever remain to Depretis. After ten years of almost uninterrupted command, he dies without having added a cent to his personal fortune, leaving a young widow and one boy who bears his name. Thirty years ago I saw Depretis at Turin, when I went there with Carlo Pisacane on the eve of his fatal but glorious expedition, with which Depretis fully sympathized. To-day it seems passing strange, and next to impossible to realize, that the man we have met at every turn of tide in the national destiny has done his worst and best, and can influence the nation's fate no longer. J. W. M.

## ABOUT GREEK LEXICONS.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, July, 1887.

PROF. GOODWIN, in his preface to the 'Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb,' says: "He who imagines that every important principle of Greek and Latin syntax is as well understood and as clearly defined as the rules for addition and multiplication in arithmetic, has not yet begun to learn." The words apply equally well to many points that cannot claim the dignity of "important principles," but are yet worth knowing and worth taking trouble to find out. Many of these points are such as we reasonably expect our lexicons to give us; but in spite of the great excellence to which they have attained, they are not yet perfect by a great deal. Passow's is one of the greatest names in Greek Lexicography, but for all he is so bulky—with his *un*handy "Handwörterbuch"—he frequently leaves us completely in the lurch. One of his prominent faults is, that he so often credits a word to an author without adding a single reference; and how disappointing this is, every one knows who wishes to study a word in its connections.

The new Liddell and Scott is in many points a great improvement on Passow, as is only natural. Any one who reads a Greek play—say the "Agamemnon"—with these two lexicons will soon see the superiority of the English dictionary; though, of course, it would be bald injustice to blame the great German for not projecting himself into the future and anticipating the results of subsequent scholarship. Liddell and Scott have in very many instances supplied references, thus partially remedying this grave defect in Passow. But the cases are very numerous in which one fails to get the usage of *Attic prose*. Take as simple an example as can well be given. What is the Attic prose word for *brother?* Ἀδελφός, of course. Yes, but a learner cannot find this out even in the new Liddell and Scott. He finds only three examples of the word, as meaning "brother," two from Euripides and one from Herodotus, and these three happen to be all in the plural (the one from Herodotus incorrectly so), and all *seemingly* in the meaning "brother and sister," to judge from the arrangement. In the adjective sense of the word, ten references are given, one of which is from Xenophon, and five from Plato, with the additional remark, "Very often in Plat." Who would not infer from this disproportion that the substantive use is quite exceptional in prose?

Nor is the point taken a trivial one, by any means. It may be so in the example selected, as every one is supposed almost to begin Greek with a knowledge of such a word as ἀδελφός. But let any one undertake the investigation of some new point that had not presented itself before, and it is surprising to see how he needs to lay his hand upon *examples*, although in his previous reading he may have seen numerous instances of what he wants. Great scholars labor under this difficulty as well as small ones. The great Madvig, who has lately passed away after reaching more than his three-score years and ten, was appointed professor in the University of Copenhagen in 1829. I cannot give the date of the publication of his "epochemachende" Greek Grammar. But his 'Bemerkungen über einige Punkte der griechischen Wortfügungslehre' bears the date of 1848; and in this work he declares himself unable to bring forward a single example to *prove* what he firmly believes, viz., that the aorist optative may be used in causal sentences after ὅτι. And yet at least five examples of this construction occur in as elementary Greek as Xenophon's 'Hellenica' (1: 3, 19 *bis;* 3: 5, 25; 7: 1, 34 *bis*), which were noted by the writer at a comparatively early period of his Greek studies, because his attention had been called to the matter by a study of Madvig's Grammar. Of course Madvig had read those examples repeatedly; but his mind was not directed to that point, and so, nineteen years after his appointment to a professorship in a famous University, he had to publish his inability to support his assertion by proof.

If the word investigated happens to be a verb, Veitch's book is an indispensable ally, but even this "result of much toilsome labor and anxious thought" only provides for certain wants. How much labor might have been saved us if Veitch had quoted Plato by the divisions of the pages (a, b, c, d, e), instead of merely giving the pages. That is a trivial point, to be sure; a much more important one is the failure in many instances to note the *meanings*, although the title-page might have led us to expect more than we get. Closely connected with this matter of the significations, is another point. Veitch very often gives the first person singular of the tense system, instead of giving the exact form found in the passage referred to: *e. g.*, under ἀπαγορεύω he gives "p. p. ἀπείρημαι Her. 6, 61; Æschm. 3, 48; Pl. Rep. 396"; whereas the forms are respectively ἀπειρῆσθαί οἱ, ἀπείρηταί σοι, and (Pl. Rep. 396, *b*) ἀπείρηται αὐτοῖς. He quotes, too, "ἀπορρηθήσομαι Lys. 22. 14." The form is ἀπορρηθήσεσθαι, τὰς σπονδάς being the subject. Now the words ἀπαγορεύω, ἀπερῶ, ἀπεῖπον, ἀπείρηκα, ἀπείρημαι, ἀπερρήθην have three distinct meanings running through them: (1) *to forbid*, (2) *to declare off, i. e., renounce, give up;* and (3) *to fail, give out, be weary, be in despair*, etc. Even in the active voice it may not be true that these three meanings are found in every tense. But when we come to the passive, we may well wish a distinct statement as to the usage. To illustrate: γράψαι=*to write* or *to paint;* γράψασθαι =*to indict;* and γραφῆναι may stand as passive for any of the three meanings. Ἑλεῖν=*to capture;* ἑλέσθαι=*to choose;* but αἱρεθῆναι regularly means *to be chosen*, and this only; for the meaning *to be captured* we must use ἁλῶναι or ληφθῆναι. Again, ἠρηκέναι=*to have captured;* and ἠρῆσθαι =*to have chosen*, or *to have been chosen*. That is, the active means one thing, and the middle means another, and the passive is a passive only for the middle meaning. Compare this with the meanings of γραφῆναι, given above, and also with the following: πειρᾶσαι, πειράσασθαι, and πειραθῆναι, all of which mean *to try*, the active being rather rare, and the verb being either deponent middle or deponent passive. To go back to ἀπαγορεύω, it looks as if the perfect and pluperfect active are perhaps not used in the sense of *forbid;* at any rate, the seven examples quoted in Veitch from Attic sources all have the meaning *tired, fail*, etc. We turn to Liddell and Scott. Under ἀπείρηκα we are referred to ἀπεῖπον, and there we find the statement "pf. ἀπείρηκα, mostly used in signf. iv. 2"—*i. e.*, as was suggested, with the meaning "*to give up, to be worn out, fail*," etc. So far, then, so good, with one thing to be noticed that needs betterment. As we are tracing these meanings through the various tenses, we cannot but feel worried to find twenty-two references for the active, with only ἀπ. given. What does it stand for? If we hunt up the references, we find that the aorist is the tense generally meant, but sometimes it is the perfect. To make it still more confusing, we find after ἀπειρηκότων δὲ χρήμασι, "ἀπ. σώμασι, Isocr. 59, c, Lycurg. 153, 4." The passage from Isocrates has the aorist and the one from Lycurgus has the perfect. Then follows ἀπ. κακοῖς, ἀλγεσι, referred to two places in Euripides, the first of which has the perfect and the second the aorist! The printing of the full form would be a great gain.

But to return to the meanings of ἀπαγορεύω, ἀπερῶ, etc. The perfect active seems to be limited to one of the three meanings. The perfect passive in the sense *declare off, give up*, is used personally (Thuc. 5, 48. cf. Lys. 22, 14), and impersonally in the sense *forbid*, as indicated by the three examples cited above.

Let us take another example in which Veitch's book would be improved by giving the exact form. Under ἐργάζομαι Veitch gives εἴργασμαι first as active, then as passive. One naturally reflects:

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"ἐργάζομαι, *to do, work, till*:' can the passive be used in any person but the third?" We look up the eight examples of εἴργασμαι as passive and the three for εἰργάσμην. As we expected, we find no instance of a first or a second person. The compound διεργάζομαι, in the sense of *despatch, kill*, may have the first or second person used passively; and we find in Euripides διεργασθεῖτ' ἄν. Our grammars are naturally content to give the first person singular of the principal parts of the verbs, regardless of the fact that the meaning of the verb may make it almost impossible that this form should actually occur. Thus, of ὀρύσσω and πίνω, the forms ὀρώρυγμαι, ὠρύχθην, and πέπομαι, ἐπόθην are given in all grammars, I suppose, but it does not seem as if these forms could possibly occur. It is easy to see, however, that this opens a wide door for any one who chooses to enter; for some figurative use may allow of the occurrence of seemingly impossible forms; or some compound may—as we saw just now in the case of διεργάζομαι. To find out these points we should need concordances to the various authors, or something like Frohwein's 'Verbum Homericum' expanded into a thesaurus of the Greek verb, in which should be given not merely those forms that actually occur (and those alone), but also, and what would be of capital importance, the *meanings* as well—a field upon which Frohwein does not enter at all.

But have we not already a 'Thesaurus Græcæ Linguæ' in eight folio volumes, volume i being in two parts, so as really to give nine heavy tomes? It furnishes us with 20,744 eighty-line columns, not to speak of the pages of *addenda et corrigenda*, nor of over 400 columns of supplementary matter of one sort and another. Originally "constructus" by Henricus Stephanus, and carefully worked over by the Dindorfs, it surely cannot leave very much to be desired. Open it at random. Here is βάλλω. Passow gives it three of his seventy-line columns. The new Liddell and Scott devotes a column and a half to it: while the Dindorf-Stephanus goes to the fore with no less than ten columns, and a fraction over for good measure. Or go to the other end of the alphabet, and note the thirty-seven columns headed with the two-letter word ὡς, and the nine columns that treat of ὥρα. Certainly a work built on this gigantic scale must give nearly all that is wanted, provided one will patiently read that much Latin to get at what he wishes, and does not find himself hung up on one of the many brackets with which the pages are so thickly sprinkled. To supplement the 'Thesaurus' let us throw in Schmidt's 'Synonomik,' with its 2,700 large pages, exclusive of indices. That ought to be enough, in all reason. But suppose we try them on βάλλω, and pursue the Attic prose usage of this verb. Liddell and Scott, we find, gives only four examples from Attic prose. Shut it up and try the 'Thesaurus.' Read through the 824 lines on βάλλω, and you find only eighteen citations from Attic prose, not counting one from Plato, of which Stephanus himself says: "qui (Pl) suis verbis si usus esset, hac constructione, quæ poetica est, abstinuisset"; nor one from Plato Epist. 7, 326, E. Nearly forty-six lines to read for each example from the sources we wish to draw from! Try Schmidt, and see what he promises. When he tells us (vol. iii, p. 125): "I shall only give the active constructions, from which the passive constructions can be inferred," we feel somewhat disappointed, because we have seen that active and passive meanings do not always tally. And, as a matter of fact, it will be found, I think, that βληθῆναι means *to be hit* or *struck* (with something thrown), and *not* "to be thrown." But you will not find this out from Passow, Liddell and Scott, or from the 'Thesaurus.' You begin to think so for yourself after looking up a number of examples of the aorist passive, and finding that *a person* is the subject in all the examples you can find: but even then, if you had before you ten times as many cases of the aorist passive as you have been able to collect, you might find exceptions to your incipient rule.

To proceed: How does one say in Greek *to throw stones*—λίθους βάλλειν? That seems natural, but λίθοις βάλλειν is the real way, certainly in the majority of cases. But we should be glad to know the point *accurately*, if we can. Liddell and Scott tells us that the accusative of the weapon thrown is rare in Homer, and that the dative of the weapon is also used; but the two examples given are both from Homer—not one word about the prose usage. Then follow the words "generally of anything thrown," followed by such examples as "to cast the filth into the sea"; "to cast the ships against the rocks"; "to throw (out) the anchor-stones"; "to cast sleep (darkness) upon the eyes." But not one of these examples is from a prose writer, and so we are again left completely in the dark as to the prose construction. For all we know, ῥίπτω may be the word prose writers would use in the above sentences. Neither do we learn from Liddell and Scott that *throw at, hit*, is a prose usage. In fact, it may be given as a general criticism on this excellent lexicon, that in far too many words a knowledge of the usages of Attic prose seems to be assumed. Passow treats us better in regard to βάλλω, but even his treatment might be made fuller and clearer.

The 'Thesaurus' is very frequently disappointing, because it gives under so many of its words such a slim proportion of Attic references. The Greek lexicon of the future has, then, ample scope for improving on any we now possess. When will it appear? ADDISON HOGE.

# Correspondence.

## THE EXCAVATIONS AT SIKYON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers are aware that, during the past spring, excavations upon the site of the ancient Greek city of Sikyon have been carried on under the auspices of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. As a student of the school, and one who had immediate charge of this work, I send you a brief account of these excavations, believing that it will be of interest to all friends of Greek learning and archæology.

Sikyon is the second classical site upon which the American School has made excavations. Its selection was justified by its importance, especially in the history of Greek art, and by the fact that no systematic excavations had ever been made there. It was situated a few miles westward of Corinth, about two miles from the Corinthian Gulf. Writers on Greek history and geography become enthusiastic in describing the situation and surroundings of the city. It lay upon a large, level plateau, at the foot of which a plain of great fertility extends down to the blue, sparkling waters of the gulf. Across this rise the peaks of Helikon and Parnassos. On the east the plain is bounded by the bold mass of Acrocorinthos. The landscape is exceedingly beautiful; and Curtius and other writers are no doubt right in supposing that to the exceptional charm of its natural surroundings must be attributed a part of the influences which made Sikyon so famous a home of the arts.

Numerous ruins still exist upon the site, consisting of the theatre, the stadium; considerable remains of a large brick structure, probably Roman baths; many foundations of buildings, aqueducts cut in the rock, and traces of streets. There are extensive remains of the wall surrounding the Acropolis, which was constructed by Demetrios Poliorketes. Fragments of columns also are found in and about the churches of the modern village of Vasiliká. It was thought best to confine our work mainly to the theatre. Our chief object was to discover its complete plan; but at the same time we proposed to do some digging on the foundations of other buildings, since we desired to identify, if possible, some of these structures with the temples or other buildings mentioned by Pausanias in his account of the city, and hoped also to find some artistic remains. But we accomplished little of importance outside of the theatre, finding no inscriptions, and only a piece of marble upon which were the toes of a statue, and an Ionic capital of ordinary stone. The results of our work in connection with the theatre, however, are of great archæological value. It was one of the largest in Greece; the plan of its structure can now for the first time be studied. Dr. Dörpfeld, the distinguished architect of the German Institute at Athens, who has suggested new theories on the structure of Greek theatres, has shown the greatest interest in the results of its excavation.

The plateau upon which Sikyon lay is separated by a rocky declivity into two portions, a larger one nearer the gulf and a smaller one in the rear. The theatre was cut out of this rocky declivity. When we began our excavations, there were to be seen slight traces of the stage foundations of the stone seats, and two large arches, one on each side of the cavea, leading from the outside to the higher rows of seats. Over the orchestra was a layer of earth, from three to nine feet deep. I will very briefly describe what may be seen now. There are three main walls belonging to the stage foundations. The one nearest the orchestra is about seventy-two feet long and three feet high. At its foot, in front, an ornamental marble border extends nearly its entire length. The blocks composing this border have at the ends the masons' marks, in the form of Greek letters. Upon one of them is one of the inscriptions that we found. This front wall has three doors in it, the middle one being double. It is evidently of Roman construction, being composed of not very large blocks of stone, and having bricks built into it. The second wall is of a different character from the first. It is made of large blocks of stone, well laid, and is without doubt of Greek construction. Its length is about forty-eight feet; its height the same as that of the first wall. It has in it only one door. The third wall is of mixed construction, part being like the first one and part like the second. It has the same length and height as the second wall. In it are two doors. At the distance of about twenty-one feet from the east end of the stage a cross-wall extends between the second and third walls at right angles to them.

To determine the form of the orchestra, we dug a trench, which laid bare its boundary. It has an elliptical form; but the ellipse is not a complete one. Along half the circumference of the orchestra we dug far enough upward from the orchestra-boundary to lay bare five rows of seats. There are fourteen stairways extending upward from the orchestra, dividing the seats into fifteen divisions, or *kerkides*, as the Greeks called them. The seats are cut out of the rock. The front row is of more elaborate construction than the rest, each seat having a back and arms. These better seats, however, are not of marble, but of the same ordinary stone as the others. Probably priests and other dignitaries sat in these seats, as in the marble chairs of the Dionysiac Theatre at Athens.

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The drainage system of the theatre seems to have been elaborate. A deep drain extends around the orchestra to the entrances, having stone bridges opposite the stairways, precisely as in the theatre at Athens. An aqueduct passes from the centre of the orchestra to the stage, and out under the middle door of the first wall. Another extends from the western side of the orchestra to the one just mentioned. In various places earthen pipes were found, which evidently served as drains.

I have already mentioned two arches, which afforded entrance and exit to the people in the higher rows of seats. These arches are interesting, as adding another to the very rare examples of Hellenic arches. The old theory that the Greeks did not construct arches until after they came under Roman influence must be abandoned. Another arch of Hellenic construction was found by the Germans at Olympia. That the arches at Sikyon are not Roman is manifest from their construction. There is in them no trace of mortar or brick. In the dimensions of the blocks and the manner of laying them, the arches are exactly like the portions of the stage walls that must be attributed to the Greeks.

In addition to the three main walls of the stage structure we found two others in the rear, running parallel to them. Both these walls seem to be of Roman construction. A portion of a column, apparently *in situ*, upon the outer wall, would seem to indicate that it was the foundation wall of a colonnade adorning the front of the theatre.

In following up the wall last mentioned we found a structure the nature of which is obscure, though it seems to have been a fountain of somewhat elaborate construction. In front are portions of four columns, still in position. These columns are channelled only upon the outer side. Back of the columns, at a distance of about three feet, is a semicircular enclosure, with plastered walls and a smooth floor. A semicircular mass projects in front of the rear wall. A great number of fragments of tiles found within would seem to indicate that the structure was roofed. Both in the front wall, forming the diameter of the semicircle, and in the rear curved wall, are orifices, apparently for the passage of water. On the west side is a well-constructed trough having a back like a seat. This trough was probably for the use of horses. At this fountain, also, earthen water pipes were found. Here our last digging was done. Some traces of other foundations appeared, and further digging at this point would probably not be fruitless.

The artistic remains which we found are not of very great value. The most important are: The arm of a statue of more than life-size; a piece of the leg of another statue; the lower part of a draped statue. These were found in the earth covering the stage. We found numerous architectural fragments, among others an Ionic epistyle of common stone, a Doric epistyle of marble, pieces of Ionic and Doric capitals, and of lion-head waterspouts. Some fragments bore traces of blue and red paint. We found numerous copper coins having upon them the dove, the well-known symbol of Sikyon. We found also a number of small earthen lamps. We discovered only two inscriptions, one of the Roman period, incomplete, relating to honors to be bestowed upon certain ambassadors; the other of the Alexandrian period, recording the victories gained in various games by one Kallistratos, the son of Philothales.

A detailed report of the work done at Sikyon, accompanied by a plan of the theatre, and illustrations, will appear in the volume of papers of the American School for the present year.

W. J. McMurtry.

Wayne, Mich., August 9, 1887.

## PROGRESS IN UTAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After a gloomy and tempestuous night of forty years the signs increase on every hand of dawn approaching to the Salt Lake region. The coming of day was really assured when in 1862 Federal troops occupied permanent quarters in Fort Douglas, when a few years later the mines were opened and the Pacific Railroad was finished, and when in the same eventful decade an enthusiastic troop of ministers and teachers in every considerable settlement began to lay the foundations for better things. But the five years last past have witnessed far more solid progress than any twenty that went before, and the march of regenerating forces during the current months is rapid beyond precedent.

As is well known, the nation for a whole generation, fully occupied with slavery, rebellion, and reconstruction, was in no condition to grapple with the serious problem existing in the remote Great Basin. Even Mr. Lincoln was content to promise, "If Brigham Young will let me alone, I will let him alone." But in 1882, by the operation of the Edmunds law, the polygamist Cannon was refused a seat in Congress, and with some 15,000 others, including nearly every man of note, was disfranchised. Thus at a single stroke these hierarchs who, since 1847, had held every office in the Territory yielding either honor, influence, or salary, were unceremoniously relegated to enduring political obscurity and powerlessness, soon after were further compelled to flee to the dismal underground which ever since has been their abode, while not less than 300 have had bitter taste of fines and prison fare. Probably the best result of the calm but resistless enforcement of the Edmunds law is found in the evidence furnished to the Utah saints, long overprone to be a law unto themselves, that the Government is at last resolved that, cost what it may, polygamy shall go, and with it church political rule. Once thoroughly convinced of this fact, faith and patience will ere long begin to fail.

Further warning of the same cogent sort was furnished by Congress last winter by the abolition of female suffrage, and the imposition of an iron-clad oath which numbers of the more fanatical friends of "plurality" could not endure. In addition, by the same Edmunds-Tucker law, the Territory was redistricted for voting purposes, that the Mormon gerrymander of long standing might give place to a division enabling the Gentile population to wield its fair share of influence at the polls. As a result of all this, at the election held August 1, five non-Mormon members were chosen to the Legislature, two of them to the upper house, while in several other districts similar results are within reach. Therefore, in the future no laws hostile to American ideas and institutions can be passed without at least previous free and full discussion. The beginning of redemption has also come, and from the same causes, to the public-school system. Hitherto education, like politics, in Utah has been manipulated *ad gloriam majorem Dei* by the priesthood. The schoolhouse and the meeting-house are commonly one and the same building, and so thoroughly impregnated with a strong flavor of Joseph Smith and the Book of Mormon that no Gentile can endure the atmosphere. The Bishop, often an ignoramus, is *ex officio* the educational boss, and no teacher is tolerated if not in good ecclesiastical standing and ready to pay one-tenth of his wages into the church coffers. For years John Taylor was Territorial Superintendent of Schools, and drew his salary from the Federal treasury. But now the schools are largely delivered from the hands of the hierarchy. The present Superintendent is a prominent lawyer, who is hard at work introducing Eastern ideas and methods. And at the recent school elections, between a dozen and a score of districts elected non-Mormon trustees. When to these startling revolutions we add the fact that about eighty Christian schools and academies have been established in the Territory, with nearly 150 teachers, no wonder it appears to the theocracy like the very crack of doom.

The latest form of assault takes the shape of a suit in the Supreme Court to annul the incorporation of the Emigration Fund Society, and of the Mormon Church itself, and to turn over to the school fund of the Territory assets illegally held, and amounting, as is alleged, to not less than $4,000,000. Thus beset on every side, no faintest hope of relief appears save in the direction of Statehood, and at that straw the drowning leaders clutch. To secure this boon they are even willing *to promise* to prohibit polygamy, as being "incompatible with a republican form of government"! It is hard, however, to believe these men sincere. Their conversion is much too sudden, and too many suspicious circumstances surround the movement. Your elder is nothing if not crafty and apt at juggling with words. Having every office, from Governor down, filled with the faithful, how could polygamy be punished? And a single neat clause of the proposed Constitution, which declares that the State shall not interfere with religion, is roomy enough to hold more Greeks than ever lay concealed in the belly of the famous wooden horse that wrought such mischief to ancient Troy. For what is polygamy but part and parcel of the Utah religion? And all in vain is it affirmed that this movement is purely political, since never yet has aught been done in any sphere without the Church as instigator, nor does any good saint presume to sneeze until after the theocratic leaders have duly taken snuff. The preposterous attempt cannot but fail, and work mischief nevertheless to all such as contrived it.

And finally, in this same evil time, this day of dire calamity, John Taylor, for ten years "prophet, seer, and revelator," dies—and dies on the underground—but how and where no Gentile knows. The fact is not specially significant, and the Church will receive no considerable shock. Only he was one of the few old-time fanatics left. He was too old and too bigoted to learn, and, it is said, stoutly refused, to his last breath, to give his consent even to the promise to prohibit what he had preached and practised right royally for four and forty years. In a few years more not one of these troublesome incorrigibles will survive, and the reins of power in Utah will fall into wiser and better hands. E. O.

August 10, 1887.

## WHAT SHALL A MUGWUMP DO IN '88?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you say anything to reassure a sadly disappointed Mugwump—one who in '84 voted for Cleveland with enthusiasm, in spite of bringing no little obloquy upon himself, but who for the last year or so has been growing more and more despondent over the President's course, and more and more perplexed what to do in '88? If the issue is again between Cleveland and Blaine, as seems not impossible, no serious-minded Independent could hesitate, I suppose. But what if it should be Cleveland against *Hawley*, or some other clean and able man, however wedded to a high tariff and the other characteristic features of the Republican programme? I confess I do not know. Since the Stone-Benton affair the President has seemed to be steadily losing ground, and declining from the high standard he (let us believe, sincerely) professed, until now it is getting difficult to say in what respect he is better than one of the old "spoils" Presidents—I

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will not say, than what we dreaded in Blaine himself. A Higgins retained and a Gorman's influence tolerated against the earnest remonstrances of the better friends of the Administration, soldiers dismissed apparently *as such*, a virtual "clean sweep" in the offices rapidly approaching consummation, the President's own injunction about the political meddling of office-holders a dead letter, the present "working" of the New York Custom-house in defiance of the reform law, and in a way recalling the palmy days of the Republican régime—these things must at least give us pause, and make us ask very seriously whether we can expect any Democrat, as we did Cleveland in 1884, to be better than his party, and whether, after all, we must not put up a man of our own, *sworn* to the great reform, and on a platform of our own, distinctly different from those of the two great parties; one which shall speak in no mistakable terms on the other issues, also, of the time—tariff reform, honest money, anti-centralization, etc. That this will mean immediate defeat, is not perhaps a fatal objection, if we can look forward, presently, to a disintegration of the Republican party, like that of the Whig party thirty years ago, when the poor, despised and oft-defeated Free-Soilers became the political assignees of the Whigs, and, under a new name, the anti-slavery men of all parties rallied to ultimate victory.

For my own part, I never had a particle of faith in the Democratic party, and having lost nearly all I had in the Republican, I begin to see no resource open but that of the colored brother who, threatened with the perplexing alternative of "perdition" or "damnation," resolved to "take to the woods."—Respectfully yours,

H. D. CATLIN.

EASTPORT, Me., August 11, 1887.

## THE PARTY TO SUPPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The best and surest evidence of a righteous cause lies in its simplicity. It has taken the best part of a lifetime for me to find out the truth of this, so that I no longer judge of a man's greatness by his ability to make incomprehensible statements, or of the strength of a party by the number of meaningless principles it professes to endorse.

I doubt if one-tenth part of all the newspaper editorials written upon questions of Government policy impress intelligent readers with a single simple truth that should lie at the root of all such discussion. Let me take up one daily paper as a clear and decided exponent of one set of principles, and another as defining some other views on the same subject, and out of both we get nothing but a humiliating sense of our own incapacity to understand. If we are good, honest partisans, it is quite likely we shall see no other way than to take for granted the conclusions of our party organ, whether understood or not.

That this is a necessary experience for the person of ordinary intelligence I will not believe. How many such voters could have learned from our party leaders what the policy of neutrality should require of the insurgents at the Isthmus of Panama some months since? Yet who could fail to know after reading the instructions given our naval commander at the time? Who of us could judge of the merits of a cattle-owner's claim against the rights of the Indian until a message was sent from Washington that did not allow of any question? Not many would be expected to fathom the relation of the United States Treasury to every citizen or property-holder; but we have seen in this Democratic Administration a Secretary of the Treasury who could so state the needs and dangers attendant upon existing conditions that all argument in opposition to his views was stopped, although the power to remedy the evil was not given him. Who of us that had the casting of a vote during a Republican Administration ever considered its influence, or received guidance that should have helped to secure a purer civil service? Yet who can fail to understand the words of our President in which he has made it clear to all who will understand, that each citizen has a duty which is beyond and independent of his power to control?

There is no discussion needed on all these questions. No one can question the clearness of the issue. Let us, then, distrust all who make claims upon us for reasons which they only can comprehend. Let us demand in exchange for our votes a principle plainly stated that can be followed and weighed if found wanting in those we uphold. BENJ. SPAULDING.

BOSTON, August 8, 1887.

## THE REMEDY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read Gov. Foraker's reasons for restoring the Republican party to power; the main object of its restored ascendancy being to give to the colored man in the cotton States a chance for a free election and a fair count.

There is an evil which demands some sort of remedy. While in the eight more northerly States of the solid South, that is, in Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, North Carolina, and Tennessee, the votes of the colored men are given according to the voter's free choice—mainly for the Republican party—and are generally counted at least as fairly as in New York or Ohio; there are eight other States, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas, in which the colored man is by pressure of all sorts made not to vote at all, or not according to his choice, or is swindled in the count.

To secure him in his right, to combine against his white neighbors, so that he may raise himself, or some white ally, to power and office, was the leading object of the eight years of Grant's rule; but the attempt was a dreary failure, and a second attempt after the Southern whites had governed themselves for twelve years would of course be more futile than the first. Still, it is undoubtedly a great evil that in eight States, or say in great part of eight States, the most fundamental principle of the Constitution, free suffrage, is openly and defiantly set aside. Many other evils are bred from this parent stem.

The only remedy which I can see for it lies with the next caucus of the Democrats in the House of Representatives. If they will read Sam Randall and his followers out of the Democratic party, the negro-suffrage problem is solved once for all. Force the editors of the Atlanta *Constitution* and of the New Orleans *Democrat-Times* into the Republican camp. The Democratic party of the Gulf States, which is now a mere white man's party, being broken up, the colored men will also separate according to their opinions and sentiments. Those working in mines and furnaces will go with the high-tariff men among their betters into the Republican camp; so will the sugar and rice raisers; those who plant cotton or corn will go in for free trade and Democracy. Each side will have whites to lead them and to protect them, and neither will find any trouble about getting a fair count. The shotgun policy, tissue ballots, and so forth will not again be heard of. The Democratic losses, if any, in the South would be made up fully in the agricultural Northwest; we should again have two truly national parties, as in the days of Jackson and Clay. Carl Schurz tried to bring such a result about in 1872; it was too early then; it is not too early now.—Yours, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, Ky., August 12, 1887.

## DR. ELY ON ETHICAL LEVEL-RAISING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the August number of the *Forum*, in an article entitled "The Conditions of Industrial Peace," Prof. Ely says: "Government must raise the ethical level of competition by prohibiting forms of it which degrade a people." The moral tone of the whole article is pitched in a high key, and deserves the highest commendation so far as it points out the ethical bearings of the industrial problem. But the quotation above given, as well as other passages, indicates that Dr. Ely is under the influence of that ancient and but lately revived superstition that Government is an entity, self-supporting and omnipotent in the control of the people.

When a law is to be carried into execution, and the mere command of the sheriff is not obeyed, he summons the *posse comitatus* to his aid; and if the power of the county will not sustain him, the law becomes a dead letter unless he gets help from some other county, at the instance of the higher State authority. Law depends for its coercive power upon its reflection of the prevalent sense of right. Substantive law is essentially nothing more than the moral rules, commonly and habitually obeyed by the masses, and which must be enforced against a small rebellious minority, in order to prevent consequential injury to the majority. You cannot by law enforce a higher standard of morality than what the masses practise spontaneously. For if it were attempted, for example, to compel every one "to do unto others as he would have them do unto him," the sanction of the law would be wanting, for no penalty is effective which is not backed by the *posse comitatus*.

You can no more create moral energy by legal enactments than you can "by taking thought add one cubit unto his (your) stature." Governments cannot raise ethical levels, for they but voice the habitual morality of the people. If the moral standard of a people is to be raised in any respect, there are but two ways: either by the slow education of the moral sentiment of the people, or by outside interference.

CHRISTOPHER G. TIEDEMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, COLUMBIA, MO.

## CLERICAL COLLEGE PRESIDENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Just now the trustees of one of the large denominational colleges of the New England States are in quest of a President. It may not be amiss, therefore, to call attention to the fact that a slow but steady change has been going on in the educational world, and that college professors and college presidents are no longer so freely chosen because of their excellence in what they shall not have to do—preach, but because of their excellence in what they shall have to do—teach. The students of colleges come almost exclusively from the secondary schools, and the qualities the teachers of these schools demand in the head of the college to which they send their pupils are *not* the ability to preach popular and eloquent sermons, not the mastery of pastoral work and church finance, and not the possibility or probability of a missionary secretary or a bishop; they demand rather the mastery of education as an art and a science, the ability to understand the intellectual and moral impulses of young men, and a thorough imbuement of the spirit of educational progress.

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Whether he has "Rev." before his name and "D.D." after it, is just as irrelevant a question as whether he has one middle name, two middle names, or no middle name at all. In a word, they merely ask for the application of business principles to the management of colleges—the selection of officials who understand the work they have to do. W. L. GOODING.

CONFERENCE ACADEMY, DOVER, DEL., August 8, 1887.

## FLOOR RUGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I take exception to one suggestion in the admirable letter of "M. N. S.," in the *Nation* of August 11, on the "Art of House-Furnishing"? She says: "Don't have painted floors with rugs unless you have plenty of servants to keep them in order." I have a house of more than a dozen rooms, in which there are no carpets covering the whole floor. In the entries and on the stairs single widths of carpet are fastened down—on the stairs with rods and in the passages with large brass-headed nails, fitted into sockets in the floor. Otherwise, bare floors with rugs everywhere. With by no means a large retinue of servants, I find no difficulty in keeping these floors in order. They are of all kinds—hard wood, soft wood stained, and soft wood painted. Rugs and floors are treated alike. Once a week they are wiped over with a damp cloth. I find the best thing for the purpose a cotton flannel bag, wrung out in cold water and tied over a broom. This is done twice a week in entries and dining-room.

It can readily be seen that this takes no longer to do than it would to sweep the carpets in the same rooms, and that it removes all the dust, instead of stirring it up into the air to fall on the furniture, whence it would be dusted on to the floor again. In my plan the furniture is dusted first. Once in two or three months the rugs are taken out to be shaken, when the floors are thoroughly washed, still with cold water, and as little of it as possible. This treatment, with polishing once a year, keeps them in excellent condition.

I am anxious to give my experience in this matter, lest persons of moderate means, realizing the good sense and value of "M. N. S.'s" letter, may be deterred from adopting a custom which is not only healthful and cleanly, but beautiful, and which has helped me to lessen, rather than increase, my domestic force. H. H. S.

NEWTON, August 12, 1887.

# Notes.

J. W. BOUTON will be the American publisher of Robert W. Lowe's 'Bibliographical Account of English Theatrical Literature, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day,' announced by Nimmo, London. It will appear in October in two editions, one limited to a hundred copies. Some 2,000 titles will be enumerated.

A new volume of poetry by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson, whose 'A Child's Garden of Verses' is his only other essay in this branch of literature, will be published immediately by Charles Scribner's Sons, along with its appearance in England. The title of the book is 'Underwoods.'

'Beecher as a Humorist' is the title of a work to be published next month by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

D. C. Heath & Co. publish directly a third edition of 'Notes on the Early Training of Children,' by Mrs. Frank Malleson; Prof. Meiklejohn's 'English Language: Its Grammar, History, and Literature'; Meissner's 'German Grammar,' revised by Prof. Edward S. Joynes; 'Practical Lessons in the Use of English,' by Mary F. Hyde, and 'Industrial Education,' by Robert Seidel.

Mr. W. M. Griswold, 206 Delaware Ave., N. E., Washington, D. C., issues as a supplement to his Continuous Index for September an eight-page (octavo) sheet called "The Novel-List," to which name it has a double claim. It records, by title and author, works of fiction published in English in 1886, and rates them according to their nature and cleverness after the verdicts of the *Athenæum*, *Saturday Review*, *Critic*, or *Nation*. Thus, *a* means a tale of adventure, *m* of murder; *t*, that the novel has "'Tendenz,' or moral purpose"; *k*, that it is well written; *y*, that it is silly; *z*, that it is wholesome, etc. All are summed up in a classified index, as Algiers, Boston, Italy, Russia (scenes laid in); Historical, Religious, Romantic, Short Stories, Wholesome, etc. This is very ingenious, and fills as nearly as may be the want of the random novel-reader, who, as Mr. Griswold says, is ever asking the librarian, "Give me a good new novel." It will be this official's fault if he is pestered any longer.

That Mr. Griswold's multifarious services as a literary guide are not as widely known as they should be, we infer from Dr. Alice B. Stockham's circular, just received. This lady (whose address is 159 La Salle Street, Chicago) has charge of the literary department of the exhibit of "Woman's Work" at the Inter-State Industrial Exposition, which opens next month at Chicago. She assures us that she "has for days had a force of clerks searching libraries and catalogues for addresses of women authors." We counsel her to procure Mr. Griswold's 'Directory of the Writers [of both sexes] for the Literary Press in the United States' (Bangor: Q. P. Index). There have been two issues of it, and both are necessary. Dr. Stockham, we should add, asks for books, magazines, or pamphlets by women authors for exhibit.

From J. B. Lippincott Co. come two more volumes, seventeen and eighteen, of the Library Edition of the Waverley novels, 'St. Ronan's Well' and 'Red Gauntlet;' and the 'Book of Snobs, etc.,' in the pocket Thackeray.

The new edition of Fetridge's (formerly Harper's) 'Handbook for Travellers,' in three volumes, claims superiority over all rival guides because it is revised to January 1, 1887, the compiler having, as he says, spent the past year in travelling through certain countries, among them Tyrol. Yet it not only makes no mention of the Vorarlberg Railway (from the Lake of Constance to Innsbruck), opened two years ago, but continues to describe in detail the diligence journey through the Inn Valley.

"Dr. Frank" is a pseudonymous medical Bostonian, three of whose works, 'Health in Our Homes,' 'Health of Our Children,' and 'A Friend in Need,' the last an octavo of 450 pp., have been issued simultaneously (Boston: Thayer Publishing Company). They are filled with well-meaning chatter on methods for the preservation and restoration of health. The two smaller books, cheaply published, might be used as sanitary tracts among people who need such primers.

'A Decalogue for the Nursery,' by S. J. Donaldson, M.D. (Boston: Otis Clapp & Son), is a mixture of elementary hygiene and homœopathic therapeutics, which appears intended for both mothers and medical students. A little knowledge is the fatal element that so often neutralizes the best intentions, and it seems unwise to put an outline of practice in the hands or heads of interested but uninstructed agents.

The Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at its April meeting in Boston, now published (vol. 4, part 4 of the New Series), possess an unusual degree of interest, especially for educators. Mr. Andrew McF. Davis reveals a curious error in the transcription of a will for the records of Harvard College, by which "the colony of now or of late called New Haven" read "the colony of Nox, etc." This unintelligible name was repeated with superstitious care for half a century in bestowing the annuity under the will, for fear of the legal consequences. Mr. Charles A. Chase, in a very readable paper, reviews some of the great charitable trusts now in existence, particularly in England, and particularly for schools. There is a biographical sketch of the late Pliny Earle Chase; and, finally, there is a short history of the Roxbury (Mass.) Latin School, one of the foremost classical schools in the country, and in point of time of founding next after the Boston Latin School and Harvard College. The mode of its support is perhaps without a parallel.

*Petermann's Mitteilungen* for July contains an interesting account by Dr. G. Schweinfurth, the well-known African traveller, of a recent exploration made by him of a part of the Egyptian desert lying between the Nile and the Gulf of Suez. In the course of his journey he was so fortunate as to fall in with a considerable number of the Maase, a Bedouin tribe of Arabs who inhabit this region but are very rarely seen by travellers. He describes them as in certain respects wilder and more uncultivated than the wildest tribes of Central Africa. These latter possess huts and domestic utensils which they consider essential to existence, but which the former wholly lack. They cannot, in fact, be surpassed in what he terms their *Bedürfnislosigkeit* (*i. e.*, being without wants). And yet, he says, they are intelligent and to a certain extent cultivated, talking well and with considerable knowledge of the events and methods of life in civilization. Their intense love of freedom alone leads them to dwell in caves, subsisting on the milk of their flocks and herds and the sweet juicy roots of the desert, knowing, as they themselves told the traveller, that "with houses came soldiers and taxes." N. Latkin writes discouragingly of the prospects of gold-mining in Siberia. The output is gradually decreasing, though the number of mines and miners is increasing. In 1884, the last year for which he gives statistics, the number of places where gold was washed was 494, with 38,166 workmen and a product of 1,476 puds—a little over 52,000 pounds. There is also a long and elaborate account, accompanied by a geological chart, of a valley running westward from Walfisch Bay, on the west coast of South Africa. The supplementary number, just issued, contains an account of explorations in the Australian Alps, made in 1885-'86, by R. von Lendenfeld. The principal aim of these expeditions, to discover traces of the existence of an ice age in the Australian continent, is said to have been completely successful, as moraines and numerous isolated boulders and glacial scratches were found.

The annual address of the President of the Historical Society of the Protestant Church of France, published in its Bulletin, is an interesting review of the work of the Society during the past twelve months, and contains notices of everything of importance published relating to the French refugees. The Society has now a library of more than 4,000 volumes, many of them very rare, and its collection of manuscripts is increasing both in size and value. A series of articles on the "Moralités polémiques," by M. É. Picot, showing the religious controversy as mirrored in the ancient French theatre, is being published in the Bulletin. The great biographical and bibliographical work published under the auspices of the Society, "La France Protestante," has now been printed as far as the name Foster.

A photogravure after a spirited bust of Marie Antoinette, made by an unknown artist when she

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was about the age of twenty, and given to the South Kensington Museum as part of the Jones bequest, is the most noticeable feature of the *Portfolio* for July (Macmillan). In the August number there are some good water effects in the etching of "A Banffshire Harbor" by Colin Hunter; and the photogravure after a landscape by a contemporary Italian artist, Costa, fully confirms the interest excited in him by Miss Cartwright's article in his praise.

*L'Art* (Macmillan) for July 1 and 15 is wholly, for June 15 in part, given up to the Salon; but the earliest issue is specially attractive by reason of M. Adolphe Jullien's sarcastic review of the first (and only) performance of "Lohengrin" in Paris, in the heat caused by the unfortunate Pagny incident. M. Jullien (whose portrait, by the way, is etched for the same number) is confident that no such interval will elapse between the first and second performances of this "romantic opera" as between those of Hugo's "Le Roi s'amuse." It seems a mode of placating the chauvinism of *L'Art's* readers to reproduce so many Wagner caricatures as M. Jullien does in connection with this article, but they are all credited to his recent work on Wagner, and so serve as a helpful advertisement.

The Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale of Florence has just acquired the archives of Lenari & Co., managers of many Italian theatres at Florence, Venice, and elsewhere in the years 1822-1844. The collection is rich in autographs of the greatest artistic celebrities of the peninsula—actors, authors, musicians, etc., and has great value as a source for the history of the modern drama in Italy.

From the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction we have part 6 of the catalogue of the Codici Palatini in the above library. Like its predecessors, it offers capital browsing for the imagination by its first lines of *rime varie*.

The *Nuova Anto'ogia* for July 1 contains the first part of an article by G. Chiarini on "Romeo and Juliet." After speaking of several stories on this subject, the author investigates at length the relation of Shakspere's play to the "Adriana" of Luigi Grotto, called "Il Cieco d'Adria," and concludes that the imitations of this play by Shakspere, taken one by one, appear very contestable, and therefore of little value, but, taken all together, seem to have some importance, and leave the impression that the "Adriana" was at least known to Shakspere.

—The last number of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, which appeared in June last, completes the ninth volume. In anticipation of their arrangements for the tenth volume, we desire to make one or two suggestions to the editors. For the benefit of such of our readers as may be professional mathematicians, or such amateurs as are able and inclined to devote a good deal of time to the higher branches of the science—and it is only to such that the *Journal* would be of any use or interest—we will make a little explanation in regard to its character. In the first place, the *Journal* is "American" only in so far as that adjective is justified by the fact that its editors, Profs. Newcomb and Craig, are Americans, and by the fact that it is published under the auspices of an American university. Neither are all—perhaps not even a majority—of its contributors Americans. It is eminently cosmopolitan, and continually publishes, in the languages of their authors, papers written by the most distinguished mathematicians of France, Germany, and Italy. But it must be understood that none of these were copied from foreign journals; they were all prepared especially for its pages. In the next place, it is not a "journal" in the ordinary sense of the word. It does not pretend to keep its readers informed of what is going on in the mathematical world. Now and then, of course, a recent event is mentioned by way of introduction to a paper, or incidentally in the course of it. Beyond this, all that can be inferred from its pages is, that some distinguished mathematician, or some person of ability, has recently been engaged in writing what we are reading. It is wholly made up of original papers, some of them rising to the dignity of extended treatises, sometimes handling perhaps a single formula; but almost always having a flavor of originality and an air of completeness and thoroughness.

—The number before us is a good example of the general character of the journal. Its first fifty-six pages are occupied with the continuation of the lectures on reciprocants by Prof. Sylvester of the University of Oxford. He promises to finish them in a future number. Should his concluding lectures be of the average length of those which have so far been published in the *Journal*, the whole will be equivalent to a volume of about two hundred and fifty quarto pages, will constitute a work in advance of anything that has yet appeared, and will probably for some time be elsewhere inaccessible. The next paper, twenty-eight pages in length, is in the French language—"Sur une Classe de Nombres Remarquables," written by M. Maurice d'Ocagne, Ingénieur des Ponts et Chaussées, at Rochefort-à Mer, France. To those whose mathematical acquirements enable them to understand it, it cannot fail to be of great interest. It not only exhibits a high order of ability, but a wonderful amount of mathematical ingenuity. Then we have, also in French, extracts from letters to the editor by M. Hermite, one of the first mathematicians of France. There is, however, nothing epistolary in their style or character. They treat certain formulæ in a rigid mathematical manner. Lastly, in a little over a page, that rising mathematician, Mr. F. Franklin, gives two new proofs of a celebrated theorem of Cauchy. And now for the suggestions to the editors. We would propose that the tenth volume should, if possible, be complete in itself, commencing nothing which it leaves unfinished, leaving nothing to be finished in some succeeding volume. The first ten volumes of the *Journal* would thus form a "set" complete in itself, and it would enable the editors to carry out our second suggestion, which is that the tenth volume should be accompanied by an index, as complete as possible, to the whole *Journal*, up to and including that volume. We have, in our own experience, frequently felt the need of such an index. That need will become more and more pressing as the years go by, for we take it for granted that the *Journal* has a long career before it. The first ten volumes will comprise nearly four thousand quarto pages; that is, surely enough to call for some guide through the maze. What sort of an index should be prepared, is a question which we cannot discuss in the limits of a note. We have called the attention of the editors to the matter now, at the conclusion of the ninth volume, in order that they may, should the suggestion meet their approbation, have ample time to fix its plan and carry out its construction.

—One of our best-known schools, and most esteemed, the Troy Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, has been for sixty-one years turning out men trained to civil engineering in particular. Nine hundred is the total number of the graduates, and more than half as many again have studied at the Institute without graduating. These figures we derive from the large volume called a 'Biographical Record of the Officers and Graduates' of the Institute (1824-1886), edited by Herbert B. Nason (Troy: Wm. H. Young). The stimulus to this labor of love, pursued under exceptional difficulties, was furnished by Sibley's 'Harvard Biographies,' and works of a similar character; and, in conception and execution, it is worthy to rank with its forerunners, though from the nature of the case it cannot compete with them in literary interest. Not a few of the alumni have achieved distinction; and when we name the late S. Wells Williams, and Fitzedward Hall, it will be seen that fame has sometimes been won in other fields than those directly contemplated by the school's teaching. Various causes, like the overcrowding of the profession, the rebellion, and the abounding opportunities for enterprise in this country, have operated on one-half of the graduates, to draw them from engineering and manufactures and turn them to all sorts of avocations. In the civil war the talents fostered by the Institute were employed on both sides. One graduate was made a brigadier-general in the Bulgarian army, while serving as war correspondent for the English press. Three Japanese have carried home engineering knowledge and skill which they were able to put to good account. Among the benefactors of the Institute the name of one woman is conspicuous; but most significant among the recorded particulars of the school's management is the fact that the first four presidents were clergymen—a kind of headship which would now seem decidedly inappropriate. The fifth was a great iron manufacturer, the sixth a physician, and the seventh a railroad lawyer. We congratulate the Institute on having such a hold on the affections of its graduates as to receive the tribute of this memorial volume.

—Amos Eaton, the botanist, whose name by good right stands first on the list of professors at the Rensselaer Institute, had, through his lectures, a happy influence on Mary Lyon, the future founder of Mount Holyoke Seminary. The Trustees of this institution have just published a history of it during its first half-century—1837-1887—edited in excellent taste by Mrs. Sarah D. Locke Stow. Less famous now than it was to the generation nearer its birth, the Seminary has even been overshadowed by its own imitators, like Wellesley College, for instance; but materially it is better equipped than ever, and apparently has lost nothing of the religious character impressed upon it by Mary Lyon, and has acquired no bias towards (Evangelical) sectarianism. A graduate of 1872, herself emancipated from the narrowness she brought to the Seminary, says: "Our little school-world maintained a thoroughgoing Christianity on a non-denominational basis." In its beginnings, if Mount Holyoke's best friends were found among certain of the clergy, so also its opponents were pointedly clerical, including editors of the religious press. Sexual considerations here came into play, at a time when the Massachusetts Congregationalists were trying to suppress the speaking of women in public, as in the case of the Grimké sisters. In 1835, at a private meeting of ministers and laymen favorable to her enterprise, Miss Lyon and two female associates were graciously allowed to be present, as "they [the men] thought there could be no impropriety in admitting us to hear what was said." It was not till 1884 that a woman was placed on the Board of Trustees. The opening chapter, on early New England education (or non-education) of women, is a very instructive review, and will surprise most readers. Equal care for girls in the common schools and in endowed academies was first exhibited about 1820. Till 1828 (not 1822, as stated), even in Boston, girls were allowed only a summer schooling, while their brothers had their holiday. Of the 2,000 graduates of Mount Holyoke a significant contingent has reinforced the corps of missionaries, domestic and foreign, and a very large propor-

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tion have become teachers. The death-rate has compared favorably with that of men's colleges, and the marriage-rate is not abnormally low. The Institute draws chiefly from Massachusetts and the other New England States (least from Maine), and from New York, with a very wide total range.

— Miss Lyon discountenanced, if she did not forbid, Sunday letter-writing on the part of her pupils. The pious founder and namesake of the McDonogh School, near Baltimore, also had scruples about the use of that day; and it is one of the curiosities of the human mind that while he deemed it perfectly right to hold his fellow-countrymen as slaves, to buy and to sell them, their working for themselves on the only day allowed them for rest from enforced labor shocked him greatly. This led him (since he saw their 'desecration of the Sabbath" was unavoidable to grant them a Saturday half-holiday, to pay them wages if they then worked for him, and finally to devise a much-lauded scheme of philanthropy by which they were made to purchase their freedom and be deported to Africa. Like Henry Clay, McDonogh would not tolerate the idea that slaves were not as truly and justly property as goods and chattels, nor discuss emancipation at the master's expense and without colonization—*i. e.*, as a purely moral question. The details of his plan as conceived and carried out may be found in a very interesting contribution to the history of education in this country, the 'Life and Work of John McDonogh,' by Prof. William Allan, Principal of the McDonogh School. The hard earnings of his freedmen went, along with his vast accumulations of real estate in the neighborhood of New Orleans and elsewhere, to the educational endowment of that city and of Baltimore. The vicissitudes of his bequest, like the incidents of his self-denying life, are almost romantic, and are well set forth in the book which the trustees of the McDonogh School have dedicated to his memory. This institution itself deserves study as a farm school unlike any other, and probably superior to any. Mr. John Johnson, jr., adds a sketch of it (which had already seen the light, at least in part) to Prof. Allan's biographical narrative. Teachers, clergymen, Sabbatarians, and intending philanthropists generally will find their profit in these pages.

—The question of closing the Bestuzheff courses for the higher education of women in St. Petersburg still remains undecided. Whether they are to share the fate of the courses for women in Moscow, Kazan, and Kieff, no one can tell; but the coming year will see their efficiency sadly interfered with. In place of the four courses, there will be but two, and the whole institution must go through a financial crisis as well. The circumstances, on the whole, will not only prove detrimental to the present welfare of an education which it is desirable should not be interrupted, but will prevent would-be benefactors from carrying out their intentions. A writer in the *European Messenger* gives some curious facts in relation to these courses, and controverts the idea that education predisposes women against matrimony and in favor of Nihilism and conspiracy. With regard to the latter he says that though the students arrive with varied and strongly pronounced opinions, these are greatly modified and corrected by residence together, and that the modification is in exact proportion to the length of the stay, as is the case with the University students. Comparing the statistics of the female courses with the University courses, the writer finds that the division of students and women, as to social classes, is identical, or nearly so. In the University there were last year 59 per cent. from the nobility, 8 per cent. from the priestly class, and 33 per cent. from the remaining classes; the women's corresponding figures were 57 per cent., 10 per cent., and 33 per cent. The number of soldiers' daughters and peasants was particularly small, being not over 2 per cent. Another curious feature of the women's courses is the fact that the harder the study the more women there are to select it, and the larger is the percentage at examinations. In the last year for which the report is at hand, 243 women chose literature, and 500 selected the physico-mathematical course. Nine of the former students are now assistant professors in the courses for women, and two of them have had articles on learned subjects published in periodicals of high standing. A committee which has been looking into the matter of the effect of education on marriage finds that out of 218 graduates from a total of 400 whose careers they have been able to trace, 70 have married, not counting those who were already married during their attendance. As only five years have elapsed since the first set graduated, this is considered a good showing. Out of the 218 above mentioned, 137 are engaged in teaching. It is five years since any students have been received into the women's medical school, and unless something is done soon that school will expire. Its graduates have rendered such good service all over the country that this will be greatly regretted; and there is a strong feeling that these higher courses should not be allowed to share the probable fate of that deserving institution.

—Four parties will observe the total solar eclipse in Japan on the 19th of August. The Japanese Department of the Interior sends out two of these—the one, under the direction of Prof. Arai, to a point on the west coast of Japan, a little south of Niigata; and the other, under the direction of the Imperial Central Meteorological Observatory, to the summit of Nantaisan, 8,500 feet elevation, and not far from Nikko. The Japanese Department of Education sends out a party from the Observatory of the Tokio Daigaku or University, under the direction of Prof. Terao, and located at Kuroiso, in central Japan. The American Eclipse Expedition, in charge of Prof. Todd of Amherst, has fixed itself at Shirakawa, in eastern central Japan, a few miles to the north of the line of central eclipse. Lieut. Southerland, U. S. N., and Mr. Romyn Hitchcock of the Smithsonian Institution joined the party at Yokohama, and Mr. Nakagawa, director of the Japanese Naval Observatory, at Tokio. Prof. Todd is also arranging to have photographs of the sun's corona taken from the summit of Nantaisan by an additional expedition, if the chances of a clear sky appear to warrant the undertaking. In addition to the above, a large number of volunteer observers, all over the region covered by the path of total eclipse, will, through the coöperation of the Japanese Educational Department, make such observations as Prof. Todd directs.

## PART THIRD OF THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—I.

*A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles:* founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part III. Batter—Boz. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1887.

After a very careful examination, we have no hesitation in saying that the third part of this great work is an improvement even upon the two preceding, singularly well done as those were. The execution is the more deserving of recognition because the task has been far more difficult. The letter B, it is well known, presents peculiar perplexities to the compiler of an English dictionary; for the etymologist in particular it is full of knotty problems, many of which will doubtless never be solved satisfactorily. It is one of the richest in the alphabet in words of native origin, or in words whose origin can be traced to no source outside of our own tongue. It is one of the letters least cumbered with a vocabulary that is at all technical—one of the letters least defiled, as a purist would look upon it, with the monstrosities that modern science delights in forming. But the very characteristics that add to its interest with the general reader are the ones that add to its difficulties for the lexicographer. It abounds in terms which, while not recorded in the earliest speech, made their appearance in the tongue long before it ever occurred to a human being that there could be any possible interest in the origin of a word. Where they came from, how they happened to come at all, how long they had been existing in the language before they showed themselves in writing—these questions force themselves constantly upon the attention, and often look in vain for a conclusive reply. Moreover, the wide variety of senses which words assume in the course of a life extending over centuries, furnishes an obstacle of its own to a satisfactory study of the development of the meaning, and in some cases, naturally, to the establishment of what must have been the primitive signification. No one, certainly not the editor of this dictionary, would pretend that all these questions have been settled. But no one, also, can go carefully over this immense collection of words and usages without feeling that they have been settled as fully as the present state of our knowledge will permit; that in this work the last results of modern scholarship have been reached and recorded; and that, while the future will doubtless supplement what is here defective, it will have but little to modify or alter in what has been secured.

Let us first give a brief summary of the contents of this part. It includes that portion of the vocabulary which lies between the verb *Batter* and *Bozzom*, the dialectic name of a flower. The editor tells us that it deals in all with 8,765 words; that of these, 5,323 are principal words, of which a detailed account is given in articles devoted to them alone; that 1,873 are compound words, explained in connection with the simple word which forms the first part of the compound; and that 1,569 are subordinate words, which are illustrated by examples, but do not demand special explanation. Furthermore, of the 5,323 principal words, 3,802 are in current use, 1,379 are obsolete, and 142 are so imperfectly naturalized as still to be deemed foreign. But, after all, these numbers, formidable as they may seem, give a very vague impression of the vastness of the results that have been accomplished. When, for instance, we find twelve closely printed columns devoted to the single verb *to be*, we get a far more adequate conception of the amount of labor expended than could possibly be obtained by any announcement of the sum of the individual words registered and discussed. More important, too, than their number is the treatment to which the words have been subjected. We have here the same sanity of statement that marked the two preceding parts; the same refusal to make conjecture do the work of investigation; the same willingness to confess ignorance when knowledge is not attainable, which of itself tends to inspire confidence in whatever conclusions are asserted with positiveness. These qualities, indeed, seem to us shown more conspicuously in this last part than in the two previously published, as if the men engaged in the preparation of the work felt themselves on firmer ground, and saw more clearly the boundaries between the known and the unknown and the unknowable

It is a matter of gratification as well as of jus-

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tice to be able to pay this tribute to the work before entering upon any criticism of details. This will be largely devoted to pointing out certain mistakes in what has been said, and certain omissions of what ought to have been included. But any fault-finding in which we indulge is not done for the sake of disparaging the merits of what has been achieved here; the value of that will never be seriously affected by assaults from any source. It is done for the purpose of contributing some slight share to the perfection of a lexicon in which every member of the English-speaking race is permanently interested. Errors of details in an undertaking so vast there must always be, and there is no better time to take note of these than while it is in progress. In our criticism of omissions, too, we shall not seek for illustration from outside and petty sources, but confine ourselves to writings and writers who have been read for this work, or at least ought to have been read for any dictionary that sets out to represent the resources of the English tongue.

In an American journal the subject of Americanisms naturally occupies the first place. It is satisfactory to find that no small number of these falsely so considered have, on the authority of this work, taken what is to be hoped is a final departure. It was inevitable they should do so the moment the actual facts of the language were brought to light. English writers in the past have been in the habit sometimes of stigmatizing and sometimes of praising, as Americanisms, words and meanings which they personally happen to meet with for the first time in the pages of an American author. It was natural that they should do so in those cases in which a usage once current in the literary speech of England had there died out, but had been retained in that of this country. But the term has been frequently applied to words which have always formed part of the universal speech. Ignorant men on the other side of the Atlantic have denounced them as corruptions coming from this quarter. Ignorant men on this side have, on the authority of the former, included them in the list of words peculiar to the United States. It is curious to note how several of these so-called Americanisms appear in this dictionary with exclusive quotations from English authors, and without the slightest suggestion that they owe their origin to this country. The information on this subject collected and brought together in this work will lay for ever many a ghost which has hitherto disquieted the hearts of imperfectly informed writers on both sides of the Atlantic.

But even the best informed reader will doubtless light upon many curious surprises in the contrast of usage as exhibited in the speech of England and America. Some of them are worth giving. The word *berate*, common enough with us, has apparently become obsolete in the mother country. No quotation for it later than 1601 is recorded as taken from any writer belonging to Great Britain. From the United States many nineteenth-century examples have been received, as might well be imagined in the case of a word used as frequently as is this, both in the colloquial and in the literary speech. In another instance usage here corresponds to that of the north of Great Britain as contrasted with that of the south. In the latter, we are told the "bid him do it" of the former is unknown or archaic; it is regularly represented by "tell him to do it." It is singular, too, to read that in England the adverb *bloodily*, used as an intensive, is "by respectable people considered . . . on a par with obscene or profane language, and usually printed in the newspapers (in police reports, etc.) 'b——y.'" This seems about as striking an illustration of delicacy as language could well present. The word is certainly rather offensive on the grounds of taste; but it is as certainly surprising to find it condemned on the score of morals. We cannot conceive even of its arousing the sensitiveness of Anthony Comstock; but our insensibility may be due to the fact of its not being a common word with us in the speech of even the lowest class.

But perhaps the most striking distinction of usage in the language of the two peoples that is recorded in this Part is in the case of the word *biscuit*. Its most common meaning in this country is not known at all to England. From the purist point of view, it ought not to be known here. The biscuit of America is usually soft; and on historical and etymological grounds no biscuit has any business to be soft. It is evident that the editor of this dictionary cannot quite venture to conceive of the atrocity. He speaks of it with reserve, and is careful to give his authority. "Even the characteristic hardness, implied in the name," he writes, "is lost in the sense 'A kind of small, baked cake, usually fermented, made of flour, milk, etc.,' used according to Webster in U. S." He might have added that Worcester says essentially the same thing, though his language is not so precise. With him it is 'A kind of bread, baked in small cakes, and intended to be eaten while hot or fresh.' Put these two definitions together, and we have fully described the ordinary biscuit of the United States. On the other hand, it is well to add that the strict usage of the word, as implying a kind of crisp, dry, hard bread, is also gaining ground steadily in this country; and it is probable that the now widely employed *cracker*—itself derived from the dialect of the north of England—will, at no distant day, give place to it, at least in the speech of the educated.

The omissions in the case of Americanisms must in some instances be intentional. We miss the frequent slang phrases *on a bender* and *big bugs*, though it is possible that the latter may occur later. *Bender*, in the Scotch sense of 'a hard drinker,' is given; and as the employment of it as just mentioned is contained in Bartlett, it seems to have been left out by design. One or two words that occur to us have sprung up since vocabularies of Americanisms have been printed; and they naturally are not found here. One of these is *battery* in its technical sense in the game of base-ball, as denoting the pitcher and catcher. The other is *bob-veal*, with accounts of the seizure of which by the health authorities the newspapers are full every spring. It is certainly as deserving a place as *bosch* or *bosh*, an English equivalent of 'butterine.'

The errors in the definitions of the Americanisms recorded are not many. Such as they are, they are marked rather by an imperfect comprehension of the meaning of the word than by actual misstatement. The definition can hardly be said to be wrong in itself, but it leads to a wrong impression. Thus, one would get the idea from what is said here that *bluff*, in the game of poker, is accompanied by noisy behavior and gesticulation; whereas, its effectiveness is due usually to the grim and almost unnatural quietness with which it is done. *Bolt*, again, is described as 'breaking away from a political party.' This is not quite true. A man does not bolt his party, but the candidate or candidates his party has put up. Sometimes, though less properly, he is said to bolt the platform of principles it has enunciated. The essential point is, that the bolter does not necessarily, in fact does not usually, abandon the political organization with which he is connected. He not infrequently votes for some men upon its ticket, and at the same time bolts others by 'scratching' their names. While upon this subject it is hardly proper to speak, as is done here, of a 'Bourbon' party as existing in the United States. No such organization can be found anywhere. The epithet is simply an application to particular persons of a general term, which has come to designate everywhere certain characteristics that have been attributed to the members of the Bourbon family of princes. It might be applied almost as readily to certain adherents of a school of political economy as to those of a political party. As a matter of fact, it is now applied just as often to Republicans as to Democrats, and in neither case does it denote any particular body of men acting together in any organized capacity. Distinctions like these it is impossible for a foreign editor to be familiar with, and he is accordingly at the mercy of informants whose knowledge, or rather whose judgment, is defective. One of the queerest results of this misinformation is to find the new slang term *boodle* euphemistically defined as 'stock in trade, capital.' The word *boodler* does not occur. This is to be regretted, not so much for itself as for the way in which it would have been explained.

One of the definitions that would convey no meaning whatever to him who should need to look up the word, is that of *Boweryish*. It is illustrated by a quotation from Poe, and explained as 'smacking of the Bowery in New York.' *Bowery* in turn has given it its original meaning of 'farm, plantation,' with the added remark, 'hence the Bowery in New York city.' What idea an Englishman could get of the passage from Poe from this explanation it is hard to conceive, for that author is applying the term to editorial articles. The definition is right as far as it goes, but it is utterly inadequate. The reference is, of course, to the Bowery as the street in New York, for a long time the home of the "b'hoys"—a word also not to be found here—that is, young men of the lower class, but a grade above roughs, loud of voice, swaggering of gait, and much given to noise and bluster and rant. It was perhaps the style of plays and play-acting as seen at the old Bowery Theatre that led to the application of the term to literature.

We hesitate to include among Americanisms a signification belonging to *boycott*, but which finds no place in the definition given in this work. Still, it seems to us that it must be a sense known and recognized in the land of its origin. *Boycott* as explained here is simply an agreement between two or more persons to have no dealings with some other one in order to punish him for his conduct. This is unquestionably the original meaning. The act denoted by it, however unjust in some cases, or even immoral, can hardly be deemed illegal. But as now commonly employed, *boycott* implies something much beyond this. It is not merely that A and B refuse to have any dealings or hold any relations with C, with whom they have a controversy, but they go to D, an outside party, and inform him that he also must join them in having nothing to do with C, on pain of involving himself in a similar punishment. It is the acts implied in this extension of the use of the word that the courts in this country have been visiting with penalties; and although this dictionary does not recognize any such sense, it is strange if it has not already developed itself on the other side of the Atlantic.

## THE GREAT CANADIAN RAILWAY.

*The Queen's Highway from Ocean to Ocean.* By Stuart Cumberland, F.R.G.S. London: Sampson Low & Co.; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 8vo, pp. 431.

WHEN the transcontinental railway through Canada was approaching completion, much interest was naturally aroused among the English-speaking residents of Australia and India. They saw with pleasure the prospect of a new line of travel opening to them through British territory, offering many attractions, and enabling them to

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escape the monotony and discomfort of the Red Sea route. To satisfy the general curiosity, Mr. Stuart Cumberland was, as he tells us, "commissioned by a syndicate of Australasian, Indian, and English newspapers to give a description of the country through which runs this new Queen's Highway." He left New South Wales in June, 1886, and arrived in British Columbia in the following month, in time to be not only the first through-passenger, but, as he rather oddly expresses it, "the first person to go over the line in a journalistic sense." To these circumstances the world is indebted for this fairly successful effort at bookmaking. A handsome volume of something over four hundred pages, illustrated by many attractive "collotype" pictures, and two tolerably good maps, embodies the author's personal observations, along with a large amount of information, historical, geographical, and statistical, compiled from recent publications. Of these compilations a considerable portion consists of extracts taken bodily from the 'Canadian Handbook,' a description of Canada prepared in the public offices at Ottawa for the purposes of the Colonial and Indian Exhibition of last year. Such details, though authentic, are naturally dry, and the author, who is evidently a newspaper writer of some experience, has thought it necessary to "throw in a little humor" occasionally, by way of relief. The humor, it must be said, is not always of the most elevated order, being chiefly made up of broadly comic accounts of his personal discomforts and annoyances, and ultra-jovial notes of his experiences and sentiments in regard to poker playing, mixed drinks, and Western profanity. These portions of the book might have been compressed with advantage; but it is fair to say that most of the narrative and descriptive part of the work is well done, and that any traveller who takes it as a guide on the route will have no serious reason to be dissatisfied with it.

The author has the genuine and laudable reporter's desire to represent accurately what he sees; and he does this constantly, even when it obliges him to state facts which directly contradict his own opinions. His sentiments as a loyal British "imperialist" make him anxious to see everything in rose color. He rebukes a leader of the Canadian Opposition for describing British Columbia as a "sea of mountains," which expression he pronounces "anti-national"; and he then proceeds to give a precise and most formidable account of the region, which fully confirms the objectionable epithet. The vast prairie land which stretches eastward from the Rocky Mountains has been described by some sanguine explorers as good agricultural territory; but the author shakes his honest head. "A good deal of the country in the earlier stages," he declares "presented a most melancholy picture. The ground seemed parched up or blackened with burned grass. Nothing was green, and but little apparently was alive. I was told that the season this year had been an exceptionally dry one, but, allowing for this, the greater part of the region had the appearance of being sour, barren, and unprofitable." "It is perfectly correct," he continues, "that, as compared with the United States, Canada has no really 'bad lands' to speak of, but that she has a good deal of indifferent land no one can deny; and Canada's best friends must admit that a great portion of such land lies in the Northwest Territories." This was in 1886. The present year has brought a sad confirmation of the author's opinion. According to the papers, many of the settlers who had been induced to attempt farming in the region he thus graphically describes, have lost their crops by the drought and "gophers" (or ground squirrels), and are giving up their farms, with all the costly improvements, as valueless.

The author is equally plain-spoken in his account of the forbidding region through which the railway is carried along the northern coast of Lake Superior, where the chief points noticeable are the enormous engineering difficulties which have been overcome, and the utterly worthless character of the country, except possibly for mining purposes. "Natural fortresses," we are told, "guard every pass through which the line has forced its way, and they frown down upon the work of man in a manner calculated to make the timorous traveller tremble for his safety." "Frequently the face of the towering cliffs has had to be cut to make a roadbed for the rails; while frowning promontories have been tunnelled and blasted, bridged and spanned, in a manner most wonderful to behold." "There are portions of this world," he concludes philosophically, "which nature reserves to herself, they, in consequence of their sterility or inaccessibleness, being unfitted for the uses of man; and almost the whole of the lake coast from Thunder Bay to Peninsula Harbor seems to be one of nature's reservations." To this may be added that the country westward of Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, a stretch of 300 miles, is pronounced "sterile and uninteresting."

The question naturally arises—if British Columbia is a "sea of mountains"; if the greater part of the land in the Northwest Territories is "sour," barren, and unprofitable; if the land north and west of Lake Superior is sterile and forbidding—how is the Pacific Railway to pay expenses? How will the vast sums which the Canadian Government has spent on this line and its complement, the Intercolonial Railway—stated by the best authority, the official 'Canadian Handbook,' at $122,000,000, or nearly one-half of the public debt of the Dominion—be recouped to the country?

The Canadian Pacific line must be regarded as the most irrational product of a most irrational political system. No person can deny—indeed, no person sufficiently educated to put pen to paper has ever denied—that the natural connection of the various segments of Canada is with the portions of the United States immediately south of them. British Columbia is simply a continuation of the California and Oregon region. Manitoba and the Northwest Territories find their proper outlets into Minnesota and Dakota. Ontario and Quebec belong to the great central system which includes the whole range of States from Michigan through Ohio and New York to western New England; while the Maritime Provinces have their most direct and profitable relations with Maine and the other Eastern seaboard States. If the politics of Canada had been ruled by the facts of geography and the light of common sense, neither the Intercolonial nor the Canadian Pacific Railway would have been thought of.

The purpose of these railways was to "bind together" by an artificial tie the long straggling row of British provinces, which nature has separated by well-nigh impassable barriers. The actual result has been the direct opposite of that which was intended. Nature has proved too powerful for her adversaries. The immense sums expended on these works, in conjunction with the other constantly increasing outlays of the Confederation, have burdened the Dominion with an oppressive load of debt, requiring a large increase of taxes. These imposts and the ill-managed efforts made to keep together the incongruous elements of this ill-assorted confederacy, partly by bribery and partly by force, have created widespread discontent. There have been already two rebellions; and a third, growing directly out of an attempt to maintain in Manitoba the Pacific Railway monopoly, has only been prevented by an ignominious surrender of the Federal authorities. An agitation in favor of "commercial union" with the United States has already assumed large proportions, and seems likely to break up the old parties in the Dominion and to bring about results which will astonish our author and his fellow-imperialists. No one who reads their publications, including Mr. Cumberland's book, can deny that their sentiments are natural and respectable. But they fail to take into account the great secular forces which determine the history of nations, and which must make the permanent separation of two countries in the condition of Canada and the United States simply impossible.

## RECENT TEXT-BOOKS OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

*The English Parliament*, in its Transformations through a Thousand Years. By Dr. Rudolph Gneist, author of 'The History of the English Constitution,' Professor of Law at the University of Berlin. Translated by R. J. Shee of the Inner Temple. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 8vo, pp. 380.

*England under the Angevin Kings.* By Kate Norgate. With maps and plans. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols. 1887.

*The Early Tudors.*—Henry VII., Henry VIII. By Rev. C. E. Moberly, M.A. With maps and plans. [Epochs of Modern History.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887.

We fear that Dr. Gneist's work will not add much to his high reputation: not from any fault on his part, but because of the exceeding badness of the translation, which is bald and literal in the highest degree, often obscure, and always inelegant. Commas abound to excess, oftener serving to puzzle than to help the reader. The translator is very fond of hyphens, too, as in such words as tran-substantiation, war-like, land-lord. A specimen of his confused and obscure style is the following (p. 30): "Of how much great personal qualities were, in such a position, capable to effect for land and people alike is manifest," etc. The book is consequently slow and hard reading.

It would, we suppose, be slow and hard reading in the best translation, by reason of its great condensation. It is in one sense a supplement to the author's 'History of the English Constitution,' published last year in a translation which contrasts very favorably with this in lucidity and elegance. But a considerable part of it covers the same ground, and, being very much abbreviated, is not nearly so easy to understand as the larger work. Take, for example, the important chapter on the Curia Regis, which is to all intents and purposes an abridgment of the corresponding portion of the larger work, and an abridgment which it is not easy fully to understand without the assistance of the more complete treatise. The history of the Parliament stands in such close connection with that of all other branches of the subject that, if it were not for this hardness of style, this would be for many reasons the best text-book for the history of the English Constitution, of which no other writer of equal eminence has given us a complete and continuous history.

These writings of Prof. Gneist's are especially acceptable at this time, because the controlling idea which runs through all his study of the English Constitution is that of the institutions of self-government; and these institutions are just now the subject of special interest and exhaustive study. It was with this branch of the subject that he commenced his labors, afterwards following up his 'History of Self-Government' with a 'History of English Administration'—an equally important and suggestive aspect. It is in relation to self-government that the book before us

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possesses its chief value, especially to us Americans. Prof. Gneist is of opinion that a serious crisis is impending in the English Government—a crisis which he feels confident that the English institutions will pass through triumphantly, but which derives its most threatening features from a departure from the inherited principles of self-government. Now, the American people have retained these institutions of local self-government, which they brought with them in the seventeenth century, in a far higher degree of vigor and integrity than the mother country has done. This is the case, we believe, through the entire North, although in varying degree in the different States. But unquestionably the influences which have so largely interfered with local self-government in England are at work here also; and it is to be hoped that American students of the subject will give careful attention to the writings of a man who not only has subjected the topic to the most profound analysis as a piece of political science, but also sees most clearly the unfavorable tendencies in their working.

Chapter viii, "The Parliaments of the Nineteenth Century down to the Second Reform Bill (1867)," begins with the significant words: "In the ancient world an aristocratic constitution, such as existed in England at the beginning of the nineteenth century, in all its exclusiveness, would have ended in reducing the lower classes to slavery. It is a splendid testimony to the power of Christianity and of this nationality, but especially as concerns the ruling class in England, that from amid such a condition of things English society has entered upon an era of social reform and reform bills." The writer then proceeds to discuss the measures of this period under the three heads of Social, Administrative, and Political reforms. In the two first departments the reforms have been rapid and far-reaching; it is in the third field that he sees danger: "Only in the sphere of *political reforms*, that is, in the organization of the communal bodies and the further development of the parliamentary constitution, attempts at a new order of things appear as failures" (p. 348). With the ecclesiastical reforms, the repeal of the exclusive privileges of the national church, he does not sympathize: "The negative result remains, that the equality of right and the intimate union of each contending church breaks up the uniform basis of the parliamentary constitution, and introduces doctrinal sections into Parliament side by side with parties political" (p. 351). This is a point that has no direct interest for a nation which never had an established church.

The next subject considered is the dissolution of the communal system. The "lowest substratum of the parliamentary constitution [the parish, corresponding to our town] had become such a decisive foundation of the *Communitates*, through the offices of constable, churchwarden, overseer of the poor, and inspector of highways, and through the vigorous development of the communal taxation system, that in the compact system of parishes and in its intimate connection with the office of justice of the peace the true power of resistance on the part of the *Communitates*, in the great constitutional struggles, was to be found. Not without fault of the ruling classes did the local officials of the *communæ*, in the course of the eighteenth century, dwindle from their original significance" (p. 352). The attempt at reform under this head was through the creation of "Boards." "The improvement in the care of the poor and surveying the highways and sanitary inspection—the whole range of social reforms—did, it is true, require not only taxes, but a wider *individual* activity for the multifarious duties of the parish. But henceforth there is no longer, amid the whirl of party strife, any further thought of these personal duties (which are not yet out of mind in German communal life). The sinking into decay of the small parochial offices only brought as a consequence that the significance of the personal honorary office became, in this regard, entirely underrated in England." "The perilous step of *setting aside all personal duty and responsibility*, in the communal body, has destroyed the whole structure, and this change, little noticeable at first, involves consequences further-reaching for England than would the abolition of the general duty to serve in the army for Germany"; the first result being "the virtual withdrawal of the well-to-do and educated classes from local communal life, and a final interweaving of the administration by a still further-spreading system of ministerial commissaries and ministerial orders."

It is a pity that the translator has retained the clumsy German practice of putting the notes at the end of the chapter (without any reference to their page), instead of the more convenient method of foot-notes, adopted in the 'History of the English Constitution.' On page 116 we find Henry IV. for Henry III., and on page 129, Edward III. for Edward I.

Miss Norgate's history was undertaken under the inspiration of the historian Green. It is dedicated to his memory, and although "of the book in its finished state he never saw a page," the labor of eleven years has been done largely with his counsel and criticism, and always in his spirit. She refers to him with constant affection as her "dear master," and we are almost authorized to regard her work as a continuation of his, which was so sadly interrupted.

Neither is the execution of her task unworthy of her model. She possesses much of Mr. Green's graphic power in narration, as well as his remarkable insight into the relations of events with one another; and she resembles him in her practice of grouping and arranging events, not by the artificial limits of royal reigns, but by the successions and transitions in larger and more profound relations. We must say that we have always thought that Mr. Green carried this last practice to an excess, so that, however clear his arrangement may be in a continuous reading of his book, it has been a stumbling-block when one has wished to search for any particular event. So with the book before us. The first chapter describes England under Henry I. The reign of Henry II. begins in chapter ix, under the title "Henry and England, 1154-1157." But the author has taken great pains in the seven intervening chapters not to devote any whole chapter or chapters to the intervening reign of Stephen, and even to avoid in their headings giving any clue to the dates of his reign. Chap. v is "Geoffrey Plantagenet and Stephen of Blois, 1128-1139"; chap. vi, "England and the Barons, 1139-1147"; Stephen's reign extended from 1135 to 1154, and, so far as the table of contents is concerned, there is no recognition of the last seven years of his reign except for ecclesiastical concerns. This we must call running a theory into the ground.

The book begins, as we have seen, with a sketch of the reign of Henry I., followed by a series of chapters upon English affairs and the French provinces, so that the time of the Angevin Kings of England is not reached until near the end of the first volume. On the other hand, the word "Angevin" is taken as meaning not the family, but the possessions; that is, the Kings ceased to be Angevin when they ceased to rule Anjou. The book ends, therefore, with the loss of the French provinces in 1206, and a closing chapter, chap. x of volume ii, is devoted to "The New England."

The character and career of Becket, and his quarrel with Henry II., are discussed with great discrimination, and the view here presented has much to recommend it. It is wholly favorable to Becket's honesty of purpose; and, as depicted in these pages, he appears an heroic personage, but somewhat vacillating and lacking in foresight. This is no doubt the estimate which has been gaining ground, as against the severe verdict passed upon him heretofore by Protestant writers. But we confess we incline more to Bishop Stubbs's calm judgment ('Early Plantagenets,' p. 68), as in his last years exhibiting "a morbid craving after the honors of martyrdom, a confessorship at the least, a crafty policy for embroiling Henry with his many enemies, combined with a plausible allegation that it is all for his good and that of the Church." So sudden a change as his in manner of life and in public policy is not in itself inconsistent with sincerity, but all the circumstances are against it. He had been for years the King's bosom friend and confidential adviser. It is not possible that he did not know the King's plans of reform; it is hardly possible that he did not support them, wholly impossible that he did not give the King reason to believe that he agreed with him and would support him. In the first year of Henry's reign he had advised the imposition of scutage upon the ecclesiastical lands, against Archbishop Theobald's vehement opposition. Even his assurance to Henry that he as Archbishop must oppose him in his plans concerning the Church, proves two things against him: that he knew these plans, and that he had been theretofore so completely identified with them, that Henry *could not believe him when he asserted that he should oppose them.* On no other theory can we explain Henry's intention to appoint him Archbishop, and especially his insisting upon it, in spite of Becket's opposition.

From this moment he saw things with new eyes. Because he had learned things that he did not know before? No, it was his class relations and class interests only that had changed. All society in the middle ages was based upon class distinctions; they formed the basis, not only of social relations, but of the parliamentary organization throughout Europe. The thing that Henry had overlooked—just as Frederick II. overlooked it when he transformed Sinibaldo de' Fieschi into Pope Innocent IV.—was that he was not merely giving Becket a new and higher office, but that he was transferring him from the feudal class to the ecclesiastical class, and thus fundamentally changing his relations to society and to all public questions. The need of reform was as imperative as ever; but now it came into collision with the new Archbishop's class interests, and he became its bitter opponent. His action may therefore have been conscientious, but it was that of a narrow *class conscience*—not proceeding upon a judgment of right and wrong, or what was for the good of society, but what was for the interest of himself and his order. In this point of view we are not called upon to condemn Becket severely, but we cannot regard him as a man of a high order of greatness, or as in any true sense a sacrifice to his sense of right. He could not rise above the narrow interests of his order; if he was a martyr at all, it was not to religion, but to his order.

The details of the book are thorough and scholarly, and the statements are supported by a mass of references, which in many cases we wish were citations. For example (vol. ii, p. 15), the explanation given of Becket's first quarrel with the King, as being a constitutional resistance to arbitrary exaction, is interesting and plausible; but we can find no clear authority for it. In regard to the condemnation of John after the death of Arthur, we are surprised to find no mention of M. Bémont's article in the *Revue Historique*, which seems to prove that this was a mistake (see the *Nation*, No. 1122). If M. Bémont is wrong, it ought to be shown.

Mr. Moberly has produced a work which, by

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its thoroughness of preparation, soberness of judgment, and interesting style, is well worthy of a place in its series. The reigns of the first two Tudors do not possess any such marked unity and individuality as to qualify them especially for being selected as an "epoch." But the period, from the point of view of European history, is especially interesting as being that of transition from the mediæval to the modern dynastic system. That series of international events which introduced the great wars for the balance of power, as well as that series of moral and intellectual events which were the true beginning of modern history, all fell in these two reigns. The period is divisible into two quite independent ones, the line being, one might almost say, the moment when Anne Boleyn captured the heart of the susceptible King. From this moment the history of England was changed; all the worst elements of the King's character came to the front, and his policy and purpose were made new.

This is not to say that, because Henry became a worse man, his policy was necessarily worse for his country. His motives were one thing, the work he wrought was another. Whatever his shortcomings, intellectually and morally, there was one quality which distinguished Henry and his daughter Elizabeth perhaps more than any other English sovereigns—*tact*: the capacity of seeing what the people needed, what they desired, and how far it was safe to reckon upon their compliance. Still less, therefore, would we say that this new policy was the work of the King alone and his selfish and sensual passions. It is hardly possible that England should not have followed the same path with the other northern nations, even if her King had not forced her into it.

Mr. Moberly's judgment of Henry VIII. appears to be intermediate between the high estimate of his intellect and his masterful character expressed by Bishop Stubbs, and the exceedingly low estimate placed upon them by Mr. Friedmann. The judgment passed upon him in the closing paragraph of the book is temperate, and, we should think, just. It is only fair to remember that he was always popular with his subjects as a whole, and that, if he had died after a reign of twenty years, he would have come down to us with a reputation certainly not as a bad King.

The history of the fifteenth century, the last reigns of the Plantagenets and the succession of the Tudors, depends more than that of any other period of English history upon questions of title. Mr. Moberly regards the title of Henry VII. to represent the line of Lancaster as sound, for the reason (p. 15) that the words *excepta dignitate regia* were omitted from the authoritative copy of the act legitimating the family of Beaufort. In regard to Henry IV., he speaks (p. 10) of his "defective title." But—apart from the fact that the hereditary rule of succession was far from being fully defined in this age—it is plain that the title of the house of Lancaster was fully as good as that of the house of Hanover. Neither was worth a straw according to the strict rule of hereditary succession; both alike rested on the will of the people, as expressed by Parliament—in each case a transfer of dynasty having taken place in order to put an end to gross misgovernment. In 1399 it was well agreed that the arbitrary and vacillating rule of Richard II. must come to an end, and it would have been an act of folly to give the throne to the child, Edmund Mortimer. At such a crisis in earlier times there was no question what should be done—the mature Edred was chosen King instead of the infant Edgar. There was no such formal decision in the present case; but when Henry seized the power, as being the one man of the royal family who was able to exercise it, the nation acquiesced.

In 1455 there came a similar crisis, and again the nation decided for the strong man, against the incapable King. But not so wisely in the results. As Mr. Moberly shows (p. 12), the house of York set aside the constitutional limitations of royal power which the Lancastrian kings had recognized, and a régime of arbitrary and tyrannical rule ensued, which was interrupted by the retransfer of the crown to a branch of the house of Lancaster, and again because the nation was tired of misgovernment. It is true the Tudor kings were as absolute as Edward IV.; but their authority rested on that of Parliament, and Parliament, under their rule, continued to be an integral part of the machinery of government.

We find on page 7 the statement that Charles the Bold "was on the point of excluding France from all communication with the rest of Europe except through his States, by seizing the Provençal dominions of René of Anjou"—a curiously incorrect statement. How could the possession of the *Provençal* territories cut off France from any part of Europe? It was not Provence but Lorraine that Charles seized; and the possession of Lorraine, forming a connecting link between his Burgundian and Netherland possessions, did block up the communication between France and the *north* of Europe. Moreover, this was not the possession of René of Anjou at this time—he had ceased for a number of years to govern Lorraine (which belonged to his wife), and this province was now the property of his grandson, René II. of Lorraine, ancestor of the Guises and Lorraines of the sixteenth century.

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*Shores and Alps of Alaska.* By H. W. Seton Karr. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1887. 8vo, xvi, 248 pp. Maps and illustrations.

THIS volume is as far as possible from containing the record of a properly trained explorer in a new field, the investigation of a scientific geographer, or the enthusiastic tale of an ardent sportsman. Yet all three may find some grains of wheat scattered through the chaffy chronicle of the Author (with a large A), his doings and opinions.

Lieut. Karr crossed the continent by the Canadian Pacific, and took the Alaska steamer at Victoria. The chapter in which he describes some of the chief features of interest along the new railway is not uninteresting, and is enlivened with several effective, if somewhat exaggerated, illustrations of bits of scenery. His journey to Sitka is remarkable only for the fact that he met and joined the New York *Times* expedition under Schwatka, with a view of scaling Mt. St. Elias. The incidents of that excursion have been too fully set forth in the daily papers to need recapitulation. So far as this book is concerned, the expedition is viewed in the light of the action and reaction between the author and his environment, and not as an organic whole. It may be noted that the position of the peak of St. Elias has been well determined by the United States Coast Survey to be in latitude 60° 20¾′, with a limit of error probably less than one mile. Although this expedition had no instrument of precision more efficient than a prismatic compass, which is occasionally referred to with a kind of awe, by making a wholly unwarrantable assumption as to the position of the landing-place, the mountain on the map of the expedition's route (p. 86) has been placed about sixteen and a half geographical miles too far north and several miles too far east. For the purposes of the narrative this does not much matter, but it is only fair that map-makers should be warned of the discrepancy.

After returning to Yakutat, Lieut. Karr left the Schwatka party and took passage on a small trading vessel for Kaiak Island, with the view of reaching Nuchek, and eventually Kadiak Island. Although the supposition of the author (p. 7) that he was the first explorer in the footsteps of Cook "to make the circuit of the coast northward from Cape Spencer, or the canoe journey from Kaiak to Prince William Sound," is ludicrously inaccurate, yet, as those who have preceded him have published little or nothing on their observations, this journey was really the grand opportunity of Lieut. Karr's whole voyage. Unfortunately he gives comparatively little information useful to geographers or ethnologists, though the prismatic compass might well have been brought into service. Still, what little in the way of observation and illustration he does give, is the most valuable part of the book. After his arrival at Nuchek, some time was passed there, and chapter x is devoted to the diary of John Bremner, a prospector who spent a winter on the Atna or Copper River. This is chiefly remarkable for its bad spelling and the absence of any really valuable information notwithstanding its length. Though the people of that region are the least known of Alaskan tribes, and any trustworthy data in regard to them would have been invaluable, this diary is as empty of facts worth noting as is possible to conceive. After some delay the author reached Kadiak, and soon after sailed for San Francisco, witnessing meanwhile the shocking murder of the Alaska Company's agent at St. Paul by a Russian maniac.

In minor matters there is much inaccuracy. Names of places are generally misspelled. Sir Thomas Hesketh's yacht, *Lancashire Witch*, which explored Cook's Inlet in 1880, is referred to as the *Paladine*. With regard to previous explorations of the region visited, the author preserves a pretty consistent silence. Nevertheless, those who have paid little attention to the subject of Alaska will find the book not without interest. It has a good index, and the publishers have done their part well.

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*Cucumber Chronicles.* A Book to be taken in Slices. By J. Ashby-Sterry. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

THIS collection of light sketches is an English summer book of an agreeable literary and outdoor flavor. Dickens and Thackeray, with a touch of Hogarth, are the *belles-lettres* ingredient, and the rambling inn, the seashore resort, and walks across country afford the nature-tonic. It must be acknowledged that much of the writer's thought is as frivolous as one can well endure even to pass the time, and sometimes his sentiment has the lightness of thistledown, with but a modicum of its grace. But for all that there are three or four papers worth liking for the half-hour they will live in the interest and memory of the hammock-lounger. "Tubbleton's" is as frowsy and stuffy a bit of Dickens's London as one would pick up in a twelvemonth outside of the novelist's own broad acre of our literature; the "Christmas Visitors" on the train—the old Admiral, his very girlish daughters eagerly scanning the platform for "Snackleton" and "Charlie," home from Egypt with his arm in a sling—make a party so natural and charming that one regrets breaking off their acquaintance; and the "Haunted Precinct" is a capital Temple reverie from a literary bachelor. But when this is said, though it would perhaps be too much to say that all is said, yet we must leave the indolent reader to seek for the plums himself in the rest of the volume, or for whatever special delicacy a slice of cucumber may have for his palate. We observe only that nothing in the book suggests that cold, unripe, and indigestible

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thing, and that in the sauce of the author there is nothing acid or hot, neither pepper nor vinegar. The only analogy between these pleasant essays and that singularly heavy and ungraceful fruit is probably that the author is fond of both.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. A Naturalist's Rambles about Home. 2d ed., revised. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
A Modern Circe. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents. New York: Geo. Munro. 20 cents.
Autobiography of Samuel D. Gross, M. D. Edited by his Sons. 2 vols. Philadelphia: George Barrie.
Barrows, C. M. Facts and Fictions of Mental Healing. Boston: B. H. Carter & Karrick.
Bottomley, J. T. Four-Figure Mathematical Tables. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Bary, Prof. A. de. Comparative Morphology and Biology of the Fungi Mycetozoa and Bacteria. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $5.50.
Chauvenet's Treatise on Elementary Geometry, revised by Prof. W. E. Byerly. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.20.
Cohen, J. B. The Owens College Course of Practical Organic Chemistry. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Cotterill, H. B. Schiller's Wallenstein's Lager. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Dettmann, F. O. Complete Text-book of Phono-Stenography. F. O. Dettmann. $2.
Fasnacht, G. E. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Franklin, B. Complete Works. Edited by John Bigelow. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Grasset, E. La Guerre de Sécession. 2e partie. Les Hommes. Paris: L. Baudoin & Cie.; New York: Christern.
Gulley, Prof. F. A. First Lessons in Agriculture. Starkville, Miss.: F. A. Gulley. 75 cents.
Hall, H. S., and Knight, S. R. Higher Algebra. Macmillan & Co. $1.90.
Kirk, Eleanor. Beecher as a Humorist. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Kunhardt, C. P. Steam Yachts and Launches: their Machinery and Management. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.
Lubbock, Sir J. The Pleasures of Life. D. Appleton & Co.
Lyall, Edna. The Autobiography of a Slander. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Lytton, Sir E. B. Poems and Ballads of Schiller. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Macdonald, G. God's Words to His Children: Sermons. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Macmillan, Prof. M. Milton's Paradise Lost. Books I., II. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
McKay, G. G. Elements of Scientific and Practical Agriculture. Baltimore.
Morris, C. The Detective's Crime. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Murray, C. A. The Prairie-Bird: A Novel. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
Peard, Frances M. Scapegrace Dick. Thos. Whittaker. $1.05.
Philadelphia and its Environs. New ed. J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Phillips's Elite Directory. W. Phillips & Co. $6.
Piatt, Mrs. S. M. B. Child's-World Ballads. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Poor's Directory of Railroad Officials. 1887. New York, 70 Wall Street. $2.
Rand, E. A. Fighting the Sea; or, Winter at the Life-Saving Station. Thos. Whittaker. $1.25.
Robertson, F. W. In Bad Hands, and Other Stories. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Robertson, W. Pocahontas and her Descendants. Richmond: J. W. Randolph & English. $1.50.
Sachs, J. von. Lectures on the Physiology of Plants. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $8.
Scott, Sir W. St. Ronan's Well. Redgauntlet. (Vols. 17, 18, Library Edition, Waverly Novels.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Shillaber, Lydia. Cook-Book. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25
Spyri, Mme. J. Swiss Stories for Children. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Street, J. C. The Hidden Way Across the Threshold. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.50.
Strettell, A. Spanish and Italian Folk Songs. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Sturgis, J. Thraldom: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
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